

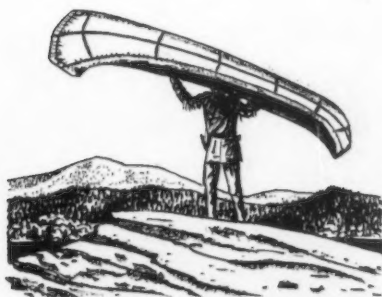
Elementary English

A Magazine of the Language Arts

FEBRUARY, 1961

READING
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WRITING
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SPEAKING
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LISTENING
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SPELLING
•
ENGLISH USAGE
•
CHILDREN'S BOOKS
•
RADIO AND
TELEVISION
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AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS
•
POETRY
•
CREATIVE
WRITING

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS
THE TEN BEST IN READING RESEARCH
BOOKS FOR RETARDED READERS
CHILDREN'S TELEVIEWING



From Solomon Juneau, *Voyageur*
(See p. 128)

*Organ of the National Council
of Teachers of English*

Elementary ENGLISH

An official organ of the NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH

508 S. Sixth St., Champaign, Ill.

FOUNDED, 1924, BY C. C. CERTAIN

JOHN J. DEBOER, *Editor*

UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS

(Send all editorial communications to 300 Gregory Hall, The University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.)

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ELEMENTARY ENGLISH is published monthly October through May by the National Council of Teachers of English, 508 South Sixth Street, Champaign, Illinois. Subscription rate \$4.00 per year. Single copy 55 cents. Postage is prepaid on all orders for the United States (and all other countries with the same postage rates). Extra postage is charged for Canada and for all other countries in the Postal Union at the rate of 48 cents per annual subscription (total \$4.48). Remittances should be made payable to the National Council of Teachers of English by check, money order, or bank draft. The publishers expect to supply missing numbers free only when the losses have been sustained in transit, when the request for the missing number is made during the month following the month of publication, and when the reserve stock will permit. All business communications regarding orders, subscription, single copies, and advertising should be addressed to the National Council of Teachers of English, 508 South Sixth Street, Champaign, Illinois. All manuscripts and correspondence about the contents of the magazine should be addressed to ELEMENTARY ENGLISH, Dr. J. J. DeBoer, Room 300, Gregory Hall, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois. Entered as second class matter December 30, 1942, at the post office in Champaign, Illinois, under the act of March 3, 1879. Additional entry at Danville, Illinois.

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Printed in the U.S.A.

ELEMENTARY ENGLISH

XXXVIII

FEBRUARY, 1961

NO. 2

RUTH G. STRICKLAND

"What Thou Lovest Well Remains"

A Golden Anniversary is a time for glancing back at the path that is receding behind us. It is a time for looking intently at the road under our feet to see whether we are where we want to be, to find firm footing and avoid obstructions over which we might trip or ruts and pitfalls into which we might stumble. It is a time for looking ahead as far as our insight and foresight can take us along the broad highway of the future.

The National Council of Teachers of English was founded fifty years ago by teachers who were convinced that through working together the teaching of English might be strengthened. The majority of the Council's members during the early years were teachers in secondary schools and colleges. Gradually interest expanded to take in teachers in elementary schools. During the past two years our organization and other organizations with similar interests

have made a thorough-going effort to see the English program as a whole, from kindergarten through the graduate school. The report of the Conference on Basic Issues in the Teaching of English has laid squarely before us some of our present problems and presented some challenging possibilities for the future.

The fifty years behind us have brought many changes in schools and and in life outside the school. Each year sees more students of all levels of ability in our schools and an extended span of planned education for each of them. The significance of the English language, this language we teach, has expanded mightily during the last fifty years until it comes closer to being

a world-wide language than has any language during man's recorded history. The role of language in the lives of the students we teach and the role of the English language in the life of the world needs to be looked at afresh in each generation and particularly in ours.

Of all the issues brought to the attention of teachers of English by the report of the



Dr. Strickland

Dr. Strickland is Professor of Education at Indiana University. This article was her President's Address before The Golden Anniversary Convention of The National Council of Teachers of English, Chicago, Nov. 24, 1960.

Conference on Basic Issues, the one that has most effectively kindled imagination and effort is the need for an articulated program of English from kindergarten through college. Through the Anniversary Conference Tours members of your Executive Committee have visited throughout the United States and talked with many teachers. The enthusiasm and interest that is being generated in the cause of better teaching of English is good for everyone.

Concern for articulation in the program of English is not new. In his book on *The Teaching of English in the Secondary School*, written in 1917, Charles Swain Thomas entitled one of his chapters, "Articulation of Elementary-School English with Secondary-School English."¹ All of us, he said, have the same common aims in the teaching of English: to develop power in expression and power in interpretation. In this endeavor we have found it expedient to divide ourselves into groups labeled kindergarten teachers, elementary teachers, grammar grade (or junior high school) teachers, high school teachers, and college and university teachers. Each group has set about doing the work that needed to be done in its field. Working in our respective fields we have at times been baffled and vexed to find our notions of what we should do disturbed and our progress hampered. Because we are human we have looked to discover who was responsible for the disturbing conditions and have tended to lay the blame on the teachers who preceded us. In our calmer moments, we recognize such fault-finding as not only futile but unjust. These ideas expressed by Thomas in 1917 might be credited to us in 1960. His motivation for putting his material into form was an invitation to offer

to the students of Harvard Summer School a course in the teaching of English. Our motivation for considering an articulated program in the teaching of English is our recognition of the significance of the English language in the lives of our young people and in society.

The Conference on Basic Issues offers three reasons for the teaching of English: for its practical value, for its civilizing value, and for the love of it. We have always given attention to its practical value though our concept of some aspects of it has changed through the years. We have only partially recognized its civilizing value, and teaching so that students study the language for the love of it is something we must learn to do.

There are important values and some cautions that need to be considered in building an articulated program. Unique in our case is the fact that the program cannot start at ground level but must be erected on the floor of learned language which the child has built in his home and community. It is some of the early stages of an articulated program to which I wish to direct your attention tonight.

Children come to school able to talk and to listen. We accept it as our task to make them literate. In our society we measure literacy by the written word, though, as a Hindu teacher reminds us, there is also "a literacy of the spoken word—thoughtfully spoken and thoughtfully listened to." In these days when mass media continually pour forth sound and the noise of life beats unceasingly on our ears, children need help with recognizing listening as a mental process—a process which requires effort and concentration but which, practiced with discrimination and thoughtfulness, results in satisfying interaction with other minds. Nor is emphasis on listening new in our time. Epictetus called

¹Charles Swain Thomas, *The Teaching of English in the Secondary School*, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1917.

attention to its importance when he told his followers, "Nature has given us one tongue but two ears, that we may hear from others twice as much as we speak." And Plutarch said, "Know how to listen and you will profit/Even from those who talk badly."

Traditionally, we have taken listening for granted. No one fifty years ago thought of teaching listening. The nearest a teacher came to it was an occasional admonition to children to "pay attention and listen" and those who failed to do so were penalized for their failure. Yet listening is too important to take for granted for it is through the ear that children learn their language and have their first experience with literature.

Speaking in the elementary school classroom of fifty years ago was legal only if it was done in answer to the teacher's question or at her request. To whisper to one's neighbor was a misdemeanor and to communicate through the writing of a note was a crime. Children were still expected to be seen, not heard. The teacher did all of the talking except for brief answers to questions. In most schools class discussion was unknown. Today we know that helping children learn to use speech effectively and confidently is highly important since so much of the work of the world is done in face to face contacts and since an individual's personal, social, and vocational life is colored by his ability to use oral language.

The child who learns to speak well can learn to write well if at first the emphasis is placed on ideas, not on mechanics. No child writes better than he talks. The child who rarely exercises his mind or his tongue in composing and uttering a well-constructed complex or complex compound sentence will mutilate such a sentence in reading it orally, will comprehend poorly

in reading it silently, and will be completely unable to put an equivalent sentence on paper. Oral language is the foundation on which the literacy of the written word is built.

If children learn the importance of meaning and communication at an early age, it is possible that they can learn the structural rules more easily. Any language has its system of signals by which the relationship of symbols is made known. In order to control the language, one must control the signals. It is quite possible that children can learn the structural linguists' signals of stress, intonation, and juncture more readily than they learn parts of speech and the rules of traditional grammar.

Children need to learn that words are powerful things which can hurt or heal, construct or tear down, build friendships or destroy them, create problems or solve them as well as carry information and turn the wheels of human interaction. Monologue is insufficient in human interaction. If discussion is to be fruitful, a quarrel settled, we must not merely talk at one another or about one another, we must talk to and with one another. It is, as Overstreet says, a minimum program for our civilized living together.² Children can learn to respect language and take pride in using it precisely and well.

A child builds himself as he builds his language. His concept of himself, of others, of life on the earth, of man's relationship with man takes shape as he learns his language. We recognize the truth of the statement that "A society is possible in the last analysis because the individuals in it carry around in their heads some sort of picture of that society."³ Children begin at an early age to conjure up that picture.

²Harry Overstreet, *The Mind Goes Forth*.

³Louis Wirth in Karl Mannheim's *Ideology and Utopia*.

Experience, both real and vicarious, provides the canvas and the colors. "Knowledge cannot be poured into a child's mind, like fluid from one vessel into another. . . . Development of mind is by growth and organization, not by external accretion." These are not the words of a modern educationist, so called. They are the words of a successful lawyer who in 1837 gave up a brilliant career in law and politics to become the secretary of the newly created State Board of Education of Massachusetts. Horace Mann recognized that children are growing organisms with drives, feelings, and interests of their own which we do well to recognize and build upon.

Some among us who know what they want youth to be able to do when they enter college would have us start young children with the skills of manipulating letters and numbers, drill them thoroughly without regard to interest or understanding, make skills automatic, then move on to develop thinking, reasoning, discrimination, and judgment. Life is not like that and children cannot be developed that way. What to the child makes sense and excites his interest is learned and retained; what does not is soon lost. The teaching of grammar is an excellent example. Most schools teach grammar every year from the fourth grade through high school yet the college teachers of English complain that it has not been learned. It is equally true that the child who is drilled in the memorization and manipulation of numbers and processes but does so without understanding can be depended upon to take in high school no mathematics that is not required and to avoid it entirely in college. We ignore the child's feelings, interests, and understanding at our peril. This does not mean that we teach only what the child wants to know. It means that we continuously open up new vistas and guide him

as he moves forward. It means what Tennyson meant when he said in *Ulysses*,

All experience is an arch where thro'
Gleams an untravell'd world, whose
margin fades

Forever and forever when I move.

Schools cannot be mills for processing into children skills and knowledge. They must be places in which children develop skills in order to use them for the adventure and excitement of further learning and for exploring their world. Every parent can testify that children are not motivated by long deferred or distant goals. A child needs satisfaction and fulfillment as he moves along; the fact that adults point out the goal in the mist on a distant horizon moves him not at all. He lives in today—he must do so because that is the only way he can learn. Weaver in his book, *Ideas Have Consequences*, says, "It is our destiny to be faced originally with the world as our primary datum but not to end our course with only a wealth of sense impressions. Our cognition passes from a report of particular detail to a knowledge of universals. . . ." We can no more build children by deciding what adults would have them be and planning from the top down than we can build a house starting at the roof. The strength of the foundation determines in large measure the strength of the structure. That means that we must build not only skills but desires, interests, understanding, and above all values because these are the motivating power in all human life. And these begin to develop at an early age.

Milton said what we mean in *Paradise Regained*, "The childhood shows the man as morning shows the day." Ruskin expressed it too when he said, "Education does not mean teaching people what they do not know. It means teaching them to

¹Richard M. Weaver, *Ideas Have Consequences*, p. 23.

behave as they do not behave. It is not teaching the youth the shapes of letters and the tricks of numbers, and then leaving them to turn their arithmetic to roguery, and their literature to lust. It means, on the contrary, training them into perfect exercise and kingly continence of their bodies and souls. It is a painful, continual and difficult work to be done by kindness, by watching, by warning, by precept, and by praise, but above all—by example."

Clifton Fadiman has set forth an idea which makes good sense to students of child development. He says that the best place to teach philosophy is not in the university but in the elementary school to the child from 8 to 12. The child looks at the world with wonder: he wants to know how it was made, who made it, how he, himself, came to be and why, what makes people and animals differ from one another, why people behave as they do, how people think and feel, what it means to be good and truthful and brave. We can lead children to wonder about man and the universe and to understand and appreciate what great and wise people have thought, said and done as they studied man and his world.⁵

Each passing epoch has its special quality and its value system with which it indoctrinates its children. In our time, it would seem to be our faults and the less admirable of our values that are imposed on the children waiting their turn on the world's stage. The boys and girls in our elementary schools today will be at the peak of their powers in the year 2000 and will live by the values we teach them. What Weaver has called the Great Stereopticon⁶ brands its imprint into children's thinking at an early age. The newspaper, radio, television and the motion picture are a man-made cosmos of the world of events.

For the average participant it is a construct with a set of significances which he does not think of examining. He accepts them as his forbears of the thirteenth century accepted the cosmos as they knew it.

The various mass media which make up the Great Stereopticon present a version of life as controlled as that taught by the societies we condemn because of their control of the thinking of their people. This version of life is sadly lacking in moral inspiration and in ethical and aesthetic values. Behind every story, whether in the newspapers or on television, is conflict of some sort. Conflict is the essence of drama, to be sure, but the accentuation of differences and the disproportionate attention to misdeeds makes criminals appear heroic and small men larger than life. Today all this is done with a reckless use of words which seems to depress and destroy what is good and to elevate what is coarse, weak, and vicious.

The only way to raise standards in any field is to develop an audience and participants who demand higher standards. We can help children become aware of their own growing sophistication as they contrast a poor story on the screen or in print with a good story. They can learn to investigate the characteristics of the stories they find satisfying. It is not difficult to combine critical study of mass media with the development of composition skills through encouraging students to write to television and motion picture producers their forthright evaluations of acceptable and nonacceptable productions.

The process of building values is a step-by-step process and the steps are small. The child is well on his way by the time he enters school. If he comes from a home where standards are high, the school can build on what he brings. If the home standards are low, the school must work to

⁵Clifton Fadiman, *The Instructor*.

⁶Weaver, *op. cit.*, p. 93.

revise them. We cannot, in any case, develop skills and then move on to develop critical thinking, reason, and values. By that time it is too late. We have seen all too much in our time of the semi-barbarian. He is literate, of course, but he has not learned to think critically or to relate his knowledge to moral ideas.

Many Americans today would regenerate our country by beginning at the base and dealing with education. Some would reverse the stand which Rousseau took; would drive us back to the mechanical and artificial rather than stand for the rights of the spontaneous and natural.

The basic impulses of man have been described as two in number, the possessive impulse and the creative impulse. The possessive impulse tends to concern itself with the acquisition of material things and with power over others, and is a source of conflict and disharmony among men. This impulse is responsible for the hidden poverty of our lives, outwardly rich but starved within. The creative impulse, which is concerned with making and doing, gives direction and meaning to our activities and transforms life into an art.⁷ Akin to that impulse and probably a part of it is the desire to acquire knowledge and skill to build oneself and to enlarge and refine one's method of thinking and operating. The more creative an individual becomes the more humane his attitude tends to be toward himself and toward society.

Paul Hazard has said that we in America confuse the development of the soul with material progress; we deplore the tendency toward uniformity and the disappearance of individual initiative and denounce the dangers of a life that has only standardized work for occupation and only sports and the popular mass media for relaxation. Yet,

he says, "The elite of the country, that long-suffering elite which rebels against any diminution of the spirit, surrounds the coming generation with a solicitude unequaled anywhere as a treasury of hope."⁸ There is a dichotomy in our thinking regarding children and their education. We are not entirely clear as to our goals for children or how to attain them.

We do know that we want to make readers of children. A reader is a person who reads, not a person who *can* read. Therefore our teaching of reading must be such that children are hungry for books and happy in reading them. Reading must *from the beginning* be concerned with meaning. Learning to decipher words, while it is highly important, is only a portion of the process of learning to read. The controversy regarding the place of phonics in the reading program is at least as old as 1838 when Horace Mann wrote in his annual report, ". . . it would seem quite as incredible, that any person should compel children to go through the barren forms of reading, without ideas; as to make them perform the motions of eating without food." ". . . when put to learning the letters of the alphabet first, the child has no acquaintance with them, either by the eye, the ear, the tongue, or the mind; but if put to learning familiar words first, he already knows them by the ear, the tongue, and the mind, while his eye alone is unacquainted with them." And again, "An example of the purely mechanical part is exhibited in reading a foreign language, no word of which is understood; as in the case of Milton's daughters, who read the dead languages to their blind father—they, with eyes, seeing nothing but black marks upon white paper; he, without eyes, surveying material and spiritual worlds—at once charmed by their

⁷Joseph Hudnut, *Architecture and the Spirit of Man*.

⁸Paul Hazard, *Books. Children and Men*, p. 87.

beauties, and instructed by their wisdom."⁹ We want our children to be charmed and instructed by their reading as they learn to survey their material and spiritual world.

Hazard, a member of the French Academy, was impressed on his visits to America with our books and libraries for children. "What wonderful efforts have been made (for childhood) to safeguard it, to nourish its spirit, to provide the choicest foods for its curiosity! Explorers set forth from America to all the countries of the world to bring back new story material. Artists, designers, engravers, painters from all the countries of the world arrive in America invited to decorate the pages of children's books."¹⁰

Children love books because by nature they desire to know and to experience. The stories in which they live help to form their philosophy of life. They need not only the stories from folklore and mythology, to which they will find allusions in adult literature, but also the literature of childhood—the stories of joy and sorrow, disappointment and fulfillment. Children need these stories to understand life and to enter into their common humanity.

Some aspects of the work in reading and literature in the schools of fifty years ago may reside in the memories of those of us whose school experience spans the years of the Council's history. Contrasts are interesting to sketch. Books for children at the threshold of learning to read have gone full cycle—from content such as "I see a ball. It is a red ball." through stories of *The Little Red Hen* and *The Gingerbread Boy* to today's beautifully illustrated preprimers and primers whose content is of the "Oh! Oh! Look, look!" variety. Content in reading textbooks of fifty years ago for older children included stories of Androcles

and the Lion, Bruce and the Spider, The Leak in the Dyke, and William Tell as well as Kingsley's *Water Babies* which some of us learned to thoroughly dislike not because of the story content but because good readers had to mark time and "keep the place" while poor readers floundered through material far above their heads. Reading textbooks today contain a great variety of modern as well as traditional stories. In good schools children are guided in selecting books that are challenging and satisfying. They are helped individually to read them with increasing skill and deepening comprehension. Some of us feel that the present day content of materials for beginning reading is boring to bright children, particularly to bright boys who do not easily tolerate such uninteresting material, and that we need to look again, not so much at methods of teaching beginners as at the content we give them. The teaching of reading beyond the beginning stage, through which children are taught to adapt reading skills to varying content and purposes, to read for meaning and for personal enrichment marks a distinct advance over the work done fifty years ago if teachers follow the guidance of the experts in the field of reading.

Contrasts exist also in the field of literature. Poetry for young children fifty years ago consisted almost entirely of Mother Goose, and the poems of Robert Louis Stevenson with a sprinkling from James Whitcomb Riley, Eugene Field, Edward Lear, and Lewis Carroll. Today there is a wealth of poetry written for young children by people who understand their interests—A. A. Milne, Rose Fyleman, Laura E. Richards, Rachel Field, and Eleanor Farjeon, to name only a few.

Many of us remember the poems we were required to learn as homework fifty years ago—"Thanatopsis" (which none of us

⁹Horace Mann, *On the Education of Free Men*, pp. 40, 43.

¹⁰Hazard, *op. cit.*, p. 86.

understood), "The Chambered Nautilus," "To a Waterfowl," Tennyson's "The Brook," Longfellow's "The Children's Hour," and long passages from his *Hiawatha*. It is quite probable that many a boy decided at that time that poetry was not for him. And the fashion changes. Few anthologies today include the poems that were our literary meat fifty years ago. But the poetry that is available to young people today is of such variety and worth that all of them can find poems which appeal enough so that they want to make them their own.

If we are concerned, as is C. P. Snow,¹¹ with the emergence of two divergent cultures in our society, that of the scientist and that of the humanist—and the inability of each to enter with understanding and sympathy into the thinking of the other or even to communicate—the place to work on the problem is not at the college level when specialization has become not only an interest but a necessity. The place to give thought to it is at the earlier levels of education where humanistic points of view as well as those of science can be made a part of the experience of all.

Perhaps the cultural inheritance into which we want all American children to enter is what Leon Howard of California has called the prevailing tradition in American literature—the indestructible belief in the power of the human spirit. The literature available to children starts them on the road to this faith—faith in the power and integrity of the human spirit to withstand the corrupting forces of society.¹²

Children know what they like in books. They seem to have a spontaneous dislike for what is insincere and false and they repudiate antagonisms and hatred. The books they like help them to build a sense

of humanity because stories in their books come from all countries. Hazard says, "Smilingly, the pleasant books of childhood cross all frontiers; there is no duty to be paid on inspiration. . . . Children's books keep alive a sense of nationality; but they also keep alive a sense of humanity. . . . They understand the essential quality of their own race; but each of them is a messenger that goes beyond mountains and rivers, beyond the seas, to the very ends of the world in search of new friendships. Every country gives and every country receives—innumerable are the exchanges—and so it comes about that in our first impressionable years the universal republic of childhood is born."¹³

The circumstances of living together in time and space have not made men peaceful. Man's reason cannot be relied on to change his conduct. His heart and emotions can be neglected only with peril. If enough individuals the world over can build resistance to evil, "affirming and spreading and communicating from one to another" the will to goodness, we may indeed achieve a new sense of world brotherhood.

We have passed the stage when we need to give children "books that ooze boredom—silly books or empty or pendent books—books that paralyze the spontaneous forces of their souls." Children reject books that talk down to them—but once they have found books that they like, they take possession of them, whether the books were written for them or not. Children want authors who believe in the reality of the external world—who are interested in things as they are. Their instinctive desire to drink deeply of life propels them in the direction of the values which give meaning to life—the moral and social values which time has proven to be our best safeguards.¹⁴

¹¹C. P. Snow, *The Two Cultures and the Scientific Revolution*.

¹²Leon Howard, *Literature and the American Tradition*.

¹³Hazard, *op. cit.*, pp. 146-147.

¹⁴*Ibid.*

No language is richer in its resources than is English. No literature has more to offer people of all ages. We want our young people so to respect their language that they hold high standards for their use of it. We want to develop in them such love of its literature that they will continue to live with it and expand their knowledge and appreciation of it throughout their lives.

In spite of the fact that we teach English to students from kindergarten through college we are not satisfied with the results of our teaching. Too many of our young people are content to use English badly. Too many of our college students take no work in English that is not required, too few of our good students do major work in English and too few of these prepare to teach English. What we teach is important and the way we teach it is equally important. We cannot afford to

alienate our students from the standards and the literature we wish them to love.

Three lines from Ezra Pound may hold the key to the attainment of our goals. He says,

What thou lovest well remains,
the rest is dross

What thou lov'st well shall not be reft
from thee

What thou lov'st well is thy true heritage.¹⁵

We recognize that the task of learning English is a task of long duration, running through all the years of formal education and out into life beyond the school. The civilizing value of teaching English can be realized and we can hope that our young people will set higher and higher standards for their own growth and continue to study English 'for the love of it.'

¹⁵Ezra Pound, "Libretto," *The Pisan Cantos*, LXXXI.

THE STORM

The sky was cloudy. Suddenly we all noticed that it was ink black. Wham! We could see the streaks of lightning ripping the clouds with their fiery radiance. Then a cannon fired at its unknown target, with its noise echoing against the hills. The wind whipped sheets of rain almost horizontally. The clouds lightened as the rain came down like bullets against the windows in a final burst of speed. Then, it was over.

Oh yes, the world took on a more forlorn look with its black tree trunks and criss-crossed streams in the parking lot across the street. The alleys began to develop streamlets to the streets, but we all know that this would all be for the better, as the day grew longer. And when the sun broke through and glorified the world with its welcome rays it became a shimmering golden paradise.

John Todd
Sixth grade, Bancroft School
Minneapolis, Minnesota

Sent in by Frances B. Kuchenbecker, teacher.

Reading Research That Makes a Difference

It is a peculiarly American custom to select "the best ten" or "one hundred best" or "most likely to succeed" individuals or products. Since we select the "All-Americans" in football or "Most Valuable Player" in baseball the idea may be extended to education. More specifically, it may be applied to research in reading.

This article selects "the best ten" examples of reading research, not because they are most valuable in all situations, but in response to the challenge of a superintendent of schools. Some time ago he said something like this to me, "You university people are always talking about ways research should influence teaching. Teachers teach the way they were taught, with some modification for the demands of their community. When did research ever influence the teaching of reading?"

At that time, my answer to the skeptical superintendent was not as complete as I should have liked, so as a result of thinking over his challenge, I list here more fully ten studies which have widely influenced reading instruction over the years. Because most of the researches are well known, I describe their method and results only briefly, but some characteristics of these influential studies are given with an attempt to analyze why they have so powerfully affected the curriculum in reading and related areas.

David H. Russell is Professor of Education at the University of California, Berkeley. He has been second vice-president of N.C.T.E. and is the author of numerous articles in professional journals and of five books, including *Children Learn to Read* and *Children's Thinking*.

The first of the classic studies in reading that comes to mind is the series of investigations by Buswell and Judd (2,7) on the reading process made at the University of Chicago around 1920. These are examples of "basic" research in education—studies which may be considered as "pure," as discovery of knowledge for its own sake, but studies nevertheless which had great influence in showing the advantages of silent over oral reading and which illustrated the differential nature of the reading act. The analyses of the act of reading destroyed, once for all, the notion that reading is a unitary activity. Instead, they suggested that reading skills differ with different purposes and materials. Accordingly, wise teachers began to help the child learn to read for a variety of purposes and using different kinds of printed matter.

A second memorable study was the investigation of errors in paragraph comprehension made by Thorndike in 1917 (12). This was an example of applied research. In an area which took oral teaching of reading for granted, Thorndike clearly showed differences between mouthing words and understanding meaning. He likened the process of reading a paragraph to that of solving a problem or combining dispersed ideas into a related whole. By illustrating the wide variety of errors children make in the comprehension of a relatively simple paragraph, he demonstrated the need for instruction in getting meaning from the printed page. He also raised the issue of causes of misunderstanding and attributed it in part to the over-potency of certain words, thus foreshadowing some

recent psychological work on individual perceptions.

A third classic publication related to Thorndike's study was a teaching study which helped provide teachers with concrete materials they could use in place of the common oral attack of that day. This was the investigation described in Gates' *New Methods in Primary Reading* (3). In it Gates did not toss phonics out the window, as sometimes claimed, but he did show the importance of visual techniques and a method he called "intrinsic" in getting meanings of words and sentences. Such a study led directly to a revolution in teaching materials and in methods which combined a variety of ways for children to recognize words.

Like his study of primary methods and materials, Gates' *The Improvement of Reading* (4) is a report of a number of experiments and try-outs of diagnostic material. It represents not only a fresh concept in the scientific study of reading but was among the first major investigations in a long list of researches on diagnostic and remedial activities. One outgrowth of the measurement movement was the attempt to get at specific factors and causes of low educational achievement. The point of view in *The Improvement of Reading* is that most reading retardation and disability are not explained by vague, blanket terms such as "laziness" or "low intelligence" or "bad attitude" but, rather, are the resultant of a group or syndrome of specific, related factors which must be diagnosed exactly. The first and subsequent editions of *The Improvement of Reading* contained a battery of diagnostic tests which have been extended in other tests by different authors and in numerous books and articles on diagnostic and remedial activities. The present-day reading clinic is one example of the influence of the diagnostic approach

to educational problems, a concept exemplified in Gates' pioneer work.

A fifth classic in the field of reading investigation was the Terman and Lima book (11) on children's reading interests. Reinforced by some of the educational theories of the day, it helped provide a basis for the concept of developmental reading. Terman and Lima discovered the typical interests of boys and girls at various age levels and showed how these changed from pre-school through early adolescent years. Accordingly, they not only provided some basis for the selection of children's literature at various ages, but they also helped evolve a dynamic concept of children's reading.

The sixth study is an example of the historical method of research. Smith's *American Reading Instruction* (8) illustrates the long gradual development of methods and practice which are a basis for what teachers do in classrooms today. For nearly three hundred years, and dating back at least to the alphabet method and theological content of the *New England Primer*, devoted teachers have worked to help their students read accurately and efficiently. Smith's historical survey has given supervisors, instructors of professional classes, and teachers themselves considerable confidence in what they advocate and do in teaching reading. The methods and materials used in classrooms today are not based on the personal opinion of some textbook author or school principal, nor on the whim of an individual teacher. Rather, they are the resultant of generations of trial in classrooms from Colonial to modern times. Smith's study, which should be projected into the last twenty-five years, can and does provide a background against which current criticisms of teaching can be measured and a basis established for continued research in methods and materials.

A seventh study opened up a new field for evaluation of reading materials rather than influencing methods of teaching of reading in the classroom. This was Gray and Leary's *What Makes A Book Readable* (6). Their formula for measuring the level of difficulty of printed materials has since been simplified by Lorge and other useful formulas developed by Dale-Chall, Flesch, and Spache. Problems of ease or difficulty of stories were studied quantitatively as early as 1923 by Lively and Pressey (14) but the more recent work, summarized by Chall (13), clearly shows the influence of the pioneer work of Gray and Leary in trying to get at objective measures of the difficulty of books or passages. Such work still requires extension into measures of concept difficulty and density. It is influencing the writing of textbooks and other materials and makes possible some matching of pupil ability and reading materials to challenge it.

The space given to discussion of the role of phonics in reading instruction suggests that research on the topic should be included in any list of "best ten." Unfortunately, no investigation in this area can be labelled "definitive." At least thirty experimental or applied researches have been carefully done but they all have some limitations in scope or technique. One of several worthy of mention is the Agnew (1) study made in 1939, not because it answered all questions about phonics, but because it combined several methods of attack and because it attempted to tackle a complex instructional problem, one that some researchers, prophets, and charlatans have attempted to oversimplify since. The Agnew study may be important just because it left certain questions about phonics unanswered. In general, it suggests that there are both advantages and disadvantages in emphasizing phonics methods.

More detailed and comprehensive studies of the most valuable phonics techniques in relation to individual differences among children remain to be done. The Agnew study is included, therefore, as a representative of a group of studies which gave careful leads to the use of phonics.

The ninth study on the list is hard to select. Names of persons who have published valuable work come easily to mind—Betts, Bond, Dale, Dearborn, DeBoer, Durrell, Harris, McKee, Robinson, Dora V. Smith, Witty, and others should surely be on any "must" list. Important areas of reading research such as reading readiness, the sociology of reading, critical and creative reading, and the effects of reading have not been mentioned. In terms of impact, however, perhaps the vote should go to Strang for a series of studies and publications which clearly pointed to the need for developmental reading instruction in secondary schools and in colleges. Her first edition of *Problems in the Improvement of Reading in High School and College* (10) collated the scattered work in the field up to 1937 and other articles and studies, notably *Explorations in Reading Patterns* (9), extended the interest in reading habits from adolescence into adulthood. Strang's work helped develop the strong current interest in reading in the post-elementary school years and, in the second book mentioned, began some study of the relationships of reading interests to other patterns of response to reading materials, an area in which the research is only beginning. Despite the dearth of solid data, teachers are becoming more concerned about the effects of reading upon children and adolescents, one phase of mental hygiene which has been one of Strang's interests.

The last study in the list of ten is easy to select, not because its impact has yet been great, but because it points the way

to important future developments. The investigation is Gray's (5) survey, done for UNESCO in 1956, of methods of instruction in reading and writing around the world. Our methods of study in comparative education are not well developed but the Gray description points to world-wide problems in literacy, in types of language, and in adaptation of instruction to the nature of the language.

As we project into possible future research, let us note a few points about these ten studies which have, with the possible exception of the recent survey by Gray, so thoroughly influenced instruction in reading. First, the studies are of different research design. One is a laboratory study, one a diagnostic study, one a teaching investigation, another a survey of large numbers of children, one a collection of case studies, each design fitting the explicit purposes of the investigator. The continued attack on problems of instruction in the language arts can be a varied one.

We may note, secondly, that each of the studies was closely connected to the problems of its day. For example, the laboratory studies by Buswell and Judd gave basic data about a little known process in the days psychology was beginning as a science. The impact of the Thorndike and Gates studies can be understood only when one realizes that reading instruction of that day was almost completely oral. The Terman study coincided with some phases of the Progressive Education movement. The Agnew study dealt with a problem which is still concerning primary- and intermediate-grade teachers and the Gray survey, whose impact is still to be felt, came in a day when the United States was beginning to take an interest in the social and educational welfare of the under-developed nations of the world. Each of these ten studies had impact because they were

closely related to the context in which they were made. As we look to the future we must also ask: What is relevant and pressing?

A third mark of these classic studies is their simplicity of design and statistical analysis. My friends in statistics tell me that simplicity is desirable, that good planning at the beginning can eliminate the necessity for intricate statistical analysis. As we look to the future, then, we can emulate the older studies by careful planning, but along with such planning we can be aware of more sophisticated models of investigations and the utilization of new resources such as machines and computers. The researcher in English is not usually acquainted with all new technical developments and so the team approach, especially at the planning and analysis stages of the study, would seem to be desirable today. I believe that some of our best research is done by individuals, but today individual researchers in the language arts field should usually consult other experts.

A fourth characteristic of these studies is that they were concerned with very different problems of reading. They help represent the tremendous scope of the reading field and the even greater possibilities for the future in the whole area of the language arts. They involve eye movements, teachers' methods, clinical procedures, children's motivations, the emotional and personality concomitants of reading, and the problems of reading and language all over the world. Horizons unlimited!

These four and other characteristics must be borne in mind as we evaluate current and future research. Perhaps some of the studies that will go into a "twenty best" list have already been done and are awaiting recognition. Many more still need to be done. We hear much these days of providing for gifted youngsters in math-

ematics or science, but what about giftedness in the English language arts? We read of differences among individuals but what about the neglected area of intra-individual differences? In reading instruction there is the study of basal versus individualized versus language arts approaches to reading now being done in San Diego County, California. Many teachers are interested in the current reassessment of reading readiness, in the work in beginning reading and team learning around Boston and Harvard, in the concern with creativity which is spreading from psychological laboratories to classrooms. The whole area of do-it-yourself in language has hundreds of possibilities to be tried and tested. All this and many more! We don't do enough of it, and use enough of it, but research in reading has influenced, and will influence practice. Research can "make a difference."

References: The "Best Ten"

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6. Gray, W. S., and Bernice Leary, *What Makes a Book Readable*. University of Chicago Press, 1935.
7. Judd, C. H., and G. T. Buswell, *Silent Reading: A Study of the Various Types*. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 23. University of Chicago Press, 1922.
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9. Strang, Ruth, *Explorations in Reading Patterns*, University of Chicago Press, 1942.
10. Strang, Ruth, *Problems in the Improvement of Reading in High School and College*. Lancaster, Pa.: The Science Press, 1938.
11. Terman, L. M., and Margaret Lima, *Children's Reading*. Appleton & Co., 1929.
12. Thorndike, E. L., "Reading as Reasoning: A Study of Mistakes in Paragraph Reading," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 8:323-332, June, 1917.

Other References

13. Chall, Jeanne S. *Readability: An Appraisal of Research and Application*. Bureau of Educational Research Monograph No. 24. Ohio State University, 1958.
14. Lively, Bertha A., and S. L. Pressey, "A Method for Measuring the 'Vocabulary Burden' of Textbooks," *Educational Administration and Supervision*. 9:389-398, October, 1923.

Free and Inexpensive Learning Materials is in its 10th edition. It is published by the Division of Surveys and Field Services, George Peabody College of Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee, and sells for \$1.50 per copy.

A List of Books for Retarded Readers Reading at First, Second, and Low Third Grade Level Compiled on the Basis of Children's Responses and Objective Data

<i>Title</i>	<i>Author</i>	<i>Publisher</i>	<i>Spache Readability Score</i>	<i>Minimum Instr. Rdg. Level of Child for Reading Bk.</i>	<i>Age Group to Which Book Appeals</i>		
					7-9	10-11	12-15
BEGINNER BOOKS							
Big Ball of String, A	Holland	Random	2.9	High 1	x	x	
Big Jump & other Stories	Elkin	Random	1.9	High 1	x	x	
Cat in the Hat, The	Seuss	Random	2.1	High 1	x	x	
Cat in the Hat Comes Back, The	Seuss	Random	2.1	High 1	x	x	
Fly Went By, A	McClintock	Random	2.3	High 1	x	x	
Sam and the Firefly	Eastman & Benchley	Random	1.8	High 1	x	x	
You Will Go to the Moon	Freeman	Random	2.1	High 1	x	x	
I CAN READ SERIES							
Danny and the Dinosaur	Hoff	Harper	2.5	High 1	x	x	
Emmett's Pig	Williams	Harper	2.2	High 1	x	x	
Little Bear	Minarik	Harper	2.3	High 1	x	x	
No Fighting, No Biting	Minarik	Harper	2.2	High 1	x	x	
Sammy the Seal	Hoff	Harper	2.1	High 1	x	x	
Seeds and More Seeds	Selsam	Harper	2.5	High 1	x	x	
BEGINNING-TO-READ SERIES							
Big New School	Hastings	Follett	2.2	High 1	x	x	
Boy Who Would Not Say His Name, The	Vreken	Follett	1.9	High 1	x	x	
Four Friends, The	Hoff	Follett	2.4	High 1-Low 2	x	x	x
Gertie the Duck	Romano & Georgiady	Follett	2.1	Low 2	x	x	x

This list is the result of a study made by Sister Mary Ruth, O.S.F., under the direction of Sister Mary Julitta, O.S.F., Graduate Division, Cardinal Stritch College, Milwaukee, Wisconsin.

Title	Author	Publisher	Spache Readability Score	Minimum Instr. Rdg. Level of Child for Reading Bk.	Age Group to Which Book Appeals		
					7-9	10-11	12-15
Hill That Grew, The	Meeks	Follett	1.9	High 1	x		
In John's Back Yard	Meeks	Follett	2.0	High 1	x	x	
Mabel the Whale	King	Follett	2.4	Low 2	x	x	
Miss Hattie and the Monkey	Olds	Follett	2.1	Low 2	x	x	
My Own Little House	Kaune	Follett	2.6	High 1-Low 2	x		
Nobody Listens to Andrew	Gulfoile	Follett	2.3	High 1-Low 2	x		
Peter's Policeman	Lattin	Follett	2.6	Low 2	x	x	
Something New at the Zoo	Meeks	Follett	2.3	High 1	x	x	
EASY TO READ BOOKS							
Big Top	Derman	Benefic	1.7	Primer	x		
Monkey Island	Derman	Benefic	1.9	High 1	x	x	
Poker Dog	Derman	Benefic	2.0	High 1-Low 2	x	x	
Pony Ring	Derman	Benefic	1.6	Primer	x	x	
Pretty Bird	Derman	Benefic	1.3	Primer	x	x	
Surprise Egg	Derman	Benefic	1.7	Primer	x	x	
PHOTO STORY BOOKS							
Billy Buys a Dog	Steward	Reilly & Lee	1.7	High 1	x		
Come to the City	Tensen	Reilly & Lee	1.8	High 1	x	x	
Come to the Farm	Tensen	Reilly & Lee	1.5	Primer	x	x	
Come to the Pet Shop	Tensen	Reilly & Lee	1.5	Primer	x	x	
Come to the Zoo	Tensen	Reilly & Lee	1.4	Pre-Primer	x	x	
Frisky-Try Again	Fox	Reilly & Lee	1.7	Primer-High 1	x	x	
Funny Squirrel	Steward	Reilly & Lee	1.9	High 1	x	x	
Little Cowboy	Jones	Reilly & Lee	1.7	Primer	x	x	
Little Dog Tim	Steward	Reilly & Lee	1.7	Primer	x	x	
Patch . . . You Just Be You!	Steward	Reilly & Lee	2.1	High 1	x	x	
THE FIRST READING BOOKS							
In the Woods	E. & M. Dolch	Garrard	2.4	High 1-Low 2	x	x	
Monkey Friends	E. & M. Dolch	Garrard	2.1	High 1-Low 2	x	x	

ELEMENTARY ENGLISH

Title	Author	Publisher	Spache Readability Score	Minimum Instr. Rdg. Level of Child for Reading Bk.	Age Group to Which Book Appeals		
					7-9	10-11	12-15
True Book of Health	Haynes	Childrens	3.0	High 2	x	x	
True Book of Houses	Carter	Childrens	2.8	Low 2	x	x	x
True Book of Indians	Martini	Childrens	3.1	High 2	x	x	x
True Book of Insects	Podendorf	Childrens	2.9	High 2	x	x	x ^o
True Book of Moon, Sun, Stars	Lewellen	Childrens	2.5	High 1	x	x	x
True Book of More Science Experiments	Podendorf	Childrens	3.2	High 2	x	x	x
True Book of Our Post Office	Miner	Childrens	3.1	Low 2	x	x	x
True Book of Pioneers	Harmer	Childrens	3.7	High 2	x	x	x
True Book of Policemen and Firemen	Miner	Childrens	2.9	Low 2	x	x	x
True Book of Reptiles	Ballard	Childrens	2.9	High 2	x	x	x
True Book of Rocks and Minerals	Podendorf	Childrens	3.0	High 2	x	x	x
True Book of Schools	Elkin	Childrens	3.7	High 2	x	x	x
True Book of Science Experiments	Podendorf	Childrens	2.7	Low 2	x	x	x
True Book of Time	Ziner	Childrens	2.8	Low 2	x	x	x
True Book of Tools for Building	Leavitt	Childrens	2.9	Low 3	x	x ^o	x ^o
True Book of Transportation	Posell	Childrens	3.5	High 2	x	x	x ^o
True Book of Trees	Podendorf	Childrens	3.2	High 2	x	x ^o	x ^o
True Book of Weeds and Wildflowers	Podendorf	Childrens	3.3	High 2	x	x	x
WHAT IS IT SERIES							
What Is a Chicken	Darby	Benefic	2.2	Low 2	x	x	x
What Is a Fish	Darby	Benefic	2.3	Low 2	x	x	x
What Is a Season	Darby	Benefic	1.6	High 1	x	x	x
What Is a Turtle	Darby	Benefic	1.7	High 1	x	x	x
COWBOY SAM SERIES							
Cowboy Sam	Chandler	Benefic	2.1	High 1	x	x	x
Cowboy Sam and Dandy	Chandler	Benefic	1.6	Primer	x	x	x

^oBook can be read a half year lower by this age group.

Cowboy Sam and Flop	Chandler	Benefic	2.1	High 1	x	x
Cowboy Sam and Freddy	Chandler	Benefic	2.2	High 1	x	x
Cowboy Sam and Miss Lily	Chandler	Benefic	1.8	Primer	x	x
Cowboy Sam and Porky	Chandler	Benefic	1.7	High 1	x	x
Cowboy Sam and the Fair	Chandler	Benefic	2.3	Low 2	x	x
Cowboy Sam and the Rodeo	Chandler	Benefic	2.4	Low 2	x	x
Cowboy Sam and Sally	Chandler	Benefic	2.1	High 2	x	x
Cowboy Sam and Shorty	Chandler	Benefic	1.9	High 1	x	x

BUTTON SERIES

Bucky Button	McCall	Benefic	1.8	Pre-Primer	x	x
Buttons and Mr. Pete, The	McCall	Benefic	1.9	High 1	x	x
Buttons and the Boy Scouts, The	McCall	Benefic	2.6	Low 2-High 2	x	x
Buttons and the Pet Parade, The	McCall	Benefic	1.8	Primer	x	x
Buttons and the Whirlybird, The	McCall	Benefic	2.0	Primer	x	x
Buttons at the Farm, The	McCall	Benefic	1.7	High 1	x	x
Buttons at the Zoo, The	McCall	Benefic	1.4	Primer	x	x
Buttons Go Camping, The	McCall	Benefic	2.2	Low 2	x	x
Buttons See Things That Go, The	McCall	Benefic	1.6	High 1	x	x
Buttons Take a Boat Ride, The	McCall	Benefic	1.8	High 1	x	x

THE BASIC VOCABULARY SERIES

Animal Stories	E. & M. Dolch	Garrard	2.6	Low 2	x	x
Bear Stories	E. & M. Dolch	Garrard	3.1	Low 2	x	x
Circus Stories	E. & M. Dolch	Garrard	2.7	Low 2	x	x
Dog Stories	E. & M. Dolch	Garrard	2.3	Low 2	x	x
Elephant Stories	E. & M. Dolch	Garrard	2.9	Low 2	x	x
Folk Stories	E. & M. Dolch	Garrard	2.7	Low 2	x	x
Horse Stories	E. & M. Dolch	Garrard	2.7	High 2	x	x
Irish Stories	E. & M. Dolch	Garrard	2.6	High 2	x	x
Lion and Tiger Stories	E. & M. Dolch	Garrard	2.9	Low 2	x	x
Lodge Stories	E. & M. Dolch	Garrard	2.9	Low 2	x	x
Navaho Stories	E. & M. Dolch	Garrard	2.7	Low 2	x	x
Pueblo Stories	E. & M. Dolch	Garrard	2.4	Low 2	x	x
Tepee Stories	E. & M. Dolch	Garrard	2.6	High 2	x	x
Wigwam Stories	E. & M. Dolch	Garrard	2.7	Low 2	x	x
Why Stories	E. & M. Dolch	Garrard	2.8	Low 2	x	x

Title	Author	Publisher	Spache Readability Score	Minimum Instr. Rdg. Level of Child for Reading Bk.	Age Group to Which Book Appeals			
					7-9	10-11	12-15	
DAN FRONTIER SERIES								
Dan Frontier	Hurley	Benefic	1.5	Primer	x			
Dan Frontier Goes Hunting	Hurley	Benefic	1.8	Primer-High 1	x	x		
Dan Frontier with the Indians	Hurley	Benefic	2.3	High 1	x	x	x	
JERRY SERIES								
Jerry	Battle	Benefic	1.3	Pre-Primer	x			
Jerry Goes Fishing	Battle	Benefic	1.7	Primer-High 1	x	x		
Jerry Goes on a Picnic	Battle	Benefic	2.1	High 1-Low 2	x	x	x	
Jerry Goes Riding	Battle	Benefic	1.7	High 1	x	x		
THE JIM FOREST READERS								
Jim Forest and the Bandits	J. & N. Rambeau	Harr Wagner	2.2	High 1	x	x	x	
Jim Forest and Dead Man's Peak	J. & N. Rambeau	Harr Wagner	2.6	Low 2	x	x	x	
Jim Forest and the Flood	J. & N. Rambeau	Harr Wagner	2.6	Low 2	x	x	x	
Jim Forest and the Mystery Hunter	J. & N. Rambeau	Harr Wagner	2.4	Low 2	x	x	x	
Jim Forest and Ranger Don	J. & N. Rambeau	Harr Wagner	1.9	High 1	x	x	x	
WALT DISNEY STORY BOOKS								
Donald Duck and His Nephews	Brumbaugh	Heath	2.0	Low 2	x			
Here They Are	Wayle	Heath	1.7	High 1	x			
Pinocchio	Baruch	Heath	2.1	High 2	x			
Water Babies Circus and Other Stories	Browne	Heath	2.1	Low 2	x			
THE AMERICAN ADVENTURE SERIES								
Friday, the Arapaho Indian	Anderson	Wheeler	2.5	High 2	x	x	x	
Portugee Phillips and the Fighting Sioux	Anderson	Wheeler	2.8	High 2	x	x	x	
Squanto and the Pilgrims	Anderson	Wheeler	2.7	High 2	x	x	x	

THE DEEP-SEA ADVENTURE SERIES

Pearl Divers, The	Coleman et al.	2.8	Low 2	x	x
Sea Hunt, The	Coleman et al.	2.5	Low 2	x	x
Submarine Rescue	Coleman et al.	3.0	Low 2	x	x
Treasure Under the Sea	Coleman et al.	2.6	Low 2	x	x

TRADE BOOKS

All Around You; A First Look at the World	Bendick	3.2	High 2	x	x
And to Think I Saw It on Mulberry Street	Seuss	4.1	High 2-Low 3	x	x
Apron Strings and Rowdy	McKee & Aldredge	2.9	Low 2	x	x
Boats on the River	Flack	3.6	High 2	x	x
Circus Baby, The	Petersham	3.1	Low 2	x	x
City Boy, Country Boy	Schlein	3.8	Low 2	x	x
Cloud Hoppers	James	3.0	Low 2	x	x
Cowboy Small	Lenski	3.0	Low 2	x	x
Fireman Fred	Barr	2.7	Low 2	x	x
Fluffy and Bluffy	Dalton	2.8	High 2	x	x
Great Sweeping Day	Wood	3.6	High 2	x	x
I Like Trains	Woolley	3.6	Low 2	x	x
I Live in So Many Places	Hengesbaugh	2.3	Low 2	x	x
Little Airplane, The	Lenski	3.6	High 2	x	x
Little Eagle	Deming	2.1	Low 2	x	x
Little Stone House, The	Hader	3.2	Low 2	x	x
Little Train, The	Lenski	2.7	High 2	x	x
Littlest Circus Seal, The	Gehr	3.3	Low 2	x	x
Mike Mulligan and His Steam Shovel	Burton	3.4	High 2	x	x
Mr. Plum and the Little Green Tree	Gilbert	4.8	High 2	x	x
Mrs. Mallard's Ducklings	Delafield	4.5	High 2-Low 3	x	x
Mystery of the Broken Bridge	Friskey	1.7	High 1	x	x
Mystery of the Gate Sign	Friskey	2.2	High 1	x	x
900 Buckets of Paint	Becker	3.0	Low 2	x	x
Papa Small	Lenski	2.5	Low 2	x	x
Perky Little Engine	Friskey	3.2	Low 2	x	x
Policeman Paul	Barr	2.5	Low 2	x	x

Scatter the Chipmunk	Coblentz	Childrens	3.0	High 2	x	x	x
Schoolroom Zoo	Woolley	Morrow	3.8	High 2	x	x	x
Skiing With Per and Kari	Murstad	Childrens	3.2	Low 2	x	x	x
Sleepy Little Lion, The	Brown	Harper	2.3	Low 2	x	x	x
Trip for Tommy	Friskay	Childrens	3.5	High 1	x	x	x
Twelve O'Clock Whistle	Beim & Crichtlow	Morrow	3.3	High 2	x	x	x
While Susie Sleeps	Schneider	Scott	3.4	Low 2	x	x	x
Whopper Whale	Vaughan	Childrens	3.6	Low 2	x	x	x

*Can read the book at high first grade level.

LIST OF PUBLISHERS AND THEIR ADDRESSES

Abingdon	Abingdon-Cokesbury Press, Nashville 2, Tenn.
Benefic	Benefic Press, 1900 North Naragansett, Chicago 39, Ill.
Childrens	Childrens Press, Jackson Blvd., Chicago 7, Ill.
Follett	Follett Publishing Co., 1010 W. Washington Blvd., Chicago, Ill.
Garrard	The Garrard Press, 510-522 North Hickory St., Champaign, Ill.
Harper	Harper and Brothers—Dept. 31, 49 East 33 St., New York 16, N.Y.
Harr Wagner	Harr Wagner Publishing Co., 609 Mission St., San Francisco 5, Calif.
Heath	D. C. Heath and Co., 285 Columbus Ave., Boston 16, Mass.
Houghton	Houghton-Mifflin Co., Midwestern Division, Geneva, Ill.
Laidlaw	Laidlaw Brothers, Thatcher and Madison, River Forest, Ill.
Longmans	Longmans, Green & Co., Inc., 55 Fifth Ave., New York 3, N.Y.
Lothrop	Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co., 419 4th Ave., New York, N.Y.
Macmillan	The Macmillan Co., 60 Fifth Ave., New York 11, N.Y.
McGraw	McGraw-Hill Book Co., 330 W. 42 St., New York 36, N.Y.
Morrow	William Morrow and Co., 425 4th Ave., New York 16, N.Y.
Oxford	Oxford University Press, Inc., 417 Fifth Ave., New York 18, N.Y.
Random	Random House, Inc., 33 W. 60th St., New York, N.Y.
Reilly & Lee	The Reilly & Lee Co., 14 E. Jackson Blvd., Chicago 4, Ill.
Scott	William Scott, Inc., 8 W. 13th St., New York 11, N.Y.
Scribner	Charles Scribner's Sons, 597 Fifth Ave., New York 17, N.Y.
Vanguard	Vanguard Press, Inc., 424 Madison Ave., New York, N.Y.
Viking	The Viking Press, 18 E. 48th St., New York 17, N.Y.
Wheeler	Wheeler Publishing Co., 161 E. Grand Ave., Chicago 11, Ill.
Whitman	Albert Whitman & Co., 560 W. Lake St., Chicago 6, Ill.
Winston	John C. Winston Co., 2500 Prairie Ave., Chicago 16, Ill.

A Dozen Methods for Stimulating Creative Writing

"After the boy had pulled the twenty fleas from the grip of the dragon, the fleas and the boy escaped by burrowing through to the other side of the world. The fleas promised to protect the boy and do his bidding as long as they lived."

Fiction?—Yes, a child's imagination at work. Children feel more free than adults do to express themselves imaginatively. The reason may be that their imaginative powers are stronger, that they are less inhibited, or that, lacking factual explanations of many commonplace things of the sort that Whitman called "Miracles," they dream up their own supernatural explanations of them.

The question teachers face is, "How do I get the children to use and maintain their powers of imagination?" Creative writing enables the teacher to help children put their imagination to work and at the same time utilize it as an effective tool for teaching written communication skills.

Teachers may also use creative writing as a painless diagnostic tool. Pupils' writing deficiencies may be noted on papers which children have written; these papers may serve as the basis for future English lessons to supplement the regular English curriculum.

One way to release a child's imagination is to suggest to him a topic that motivates him into putting himself in the role of a super-wizard for whom nothing is impossible, like the narrator in the quotation at the beginning. We want the child to forget himself temporarily; only then can the

best creative writing be achieved. A child, much like an adult, has self-consciousness and inhibitions which haunt his imagination and hinder his literary efforts. The older the child, the more inhibitions he develops.

The approaches to creative writing suggested here are not a compilation of all methods and topics for inducing creative thinking; no list can be. The following list is intended to suggest a number of possibilities suited to various types of classes; each teacher may explore the ones that seem most appropriate for her class, and experiment with still others.

1. Have the class participate in a tall stories contest. Have them write their exaggerations to be judged for cleverness and effectiveness of the narration. For example, one child wrote:

"Minnesota winters get mighty cold, and my father raises onions that are mighty hot. One day last winter when the highest temperature of the day was below zero, my father cut one of his onions in two and was working outside in his undershirt with the sweat pouring off of him. After that, we used one onion a day to heat the whole house."

This is an especially effective topic to use at the time of year when the winners in the annual Burlington, Wisconsin, Liars Club competition are reported in the newspapers.

2. Exhibit abstract paintings and/or ink blotches and ask the children to write a story about the object (s) which they perceive. Some teachers refer to this as the "Written Rorschach."

Modification: Have the students write the story implied by a magazine cover such

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as the ones generally found on the *Saturday Evening Post*.

3. Have the class write a story entitled "What I Would Do if I Knew I Would be Blind in Three Days."

Modification: Substitute *deaf* or *tasteless* for the word *blind*.

4. Describe a setting and have the children write a story about it. For example, the teacher might say to the class: "The night was still, broken only by the shrill screeches of a distant owl. The black narrow house looked forbidding in the pale moon light. The leaves which were still on the trees made rustling sounds as a faint breeze blew through them."

5. Ask the children to write how they would spend a hundred thousand dollars or a million dollars, of course giving them a few "ground-rules" for spending the money. For example, not more than ten percent of the money could be given to charity; not more than five percent could be spent for any one item; and not more than one of any item could be purchased.

6. Assign a descriptive paper entitled "My Dream House."

Modification: Substitute the words *car*, *mother*, *brother*, *sister*, or *teacher* for the word *house*.

7. Suggest to the class that they are (individually) suddenly to be found in Communist China, Cuba, Tibet, or Russia; have them write what they would do and how they would plan to get home.

8. Have the class write papers on the following topics:

a) In what period of history would I like to live? Prehistoric, Civil War, or Time of Christ?—Why?

b) Would I rather live in a part of the human past or in the unknown future? What might I be doing in either place?

c) What would most amaze George Washington, Benjamin Franklin, Abraham

Lincoln, or Christopher Columbus about America today?

What would make them the most unhappy?

9. Ask the class to read about a half of a story in their reading book and to finish the story themselves.

Modification: Take the leading character from a reading book story and transplant him or her into a new story; of course, the character's personality, physical characteristics, and attitudes must remain unchanged.

10. Have the class write a story over a period of a month or so writing a sentence (or in higher grades a paragraph) a day.

Modification: Have two children write a story—each writing a sentence or paragraph a day for a period of time.

11. Tell the group that they could go anywhere in the world that they pleased. Ask them to write where they would go and what they would like to see there. (This topic is conducive to having children use reference materials to gather information about geographic places and incorporate this into their writing.)

12. Ask the children to pick their favorite fictional character—Tom Sawyer, Casey at the bat, Caddie Woodlawn, Rumpelstiltskin, Cinderella, Snow White, Donald Duck, Alice in Wonderland, etc. and write a story about a personal adventure with him or her.

These are only a few of the countless ways that a teacher can stimulate her class to write creatively; some teachers pride themselves on their resourcefulness and their own creativity. It would be hard to overemphasize the value of creative writing in the elementary school, although unhappily a great deal of creativity appears to be lost in the child's elementary school years.

Creativity in Writing Is Where You Find It

A child is a unique personality living in a world peculiarly his own. To deny him unhampered self-expression as he writes of the world he sees, feels, and in which he lives is to discourage the free flow of inner and outer experiences which give life meaning and purpose.

What a valuable tool a child's creative writing ability can be in the hands of a skillful teacher! It easily can be therapeutic as in the person of Timothy Y., a very attractive nine-year-old boy in my fourth grade class one year. Tim's father, a man of prominence at the local and state levels, had little time to set aside for his young son; his mother, an extremely busy society matron, dedicated to the needs and dicta of her socio-economic stratum had little time either. Emotional insecurity was clearly evidenced in many of Tim's adjustments and came to light most significantly in his writing and speaking.

Early in the year he wrote of his pig, a lovable, funny, and most dependable animal! What fun they had together, and such a pig you never did see! He talked and wrote so convincingly of his four-footed friend that all of Tim's classmates were sorely perplexed. Did he *really* have a pig? I might point out that Timmy lived in an exclusive residential area where it was mandatory that one blend; where one dare *not* be different; where one rigidly adhered to local ordinances and customs. The dignity, harmony, and tranquility, to say nothing of the "air" of the neighborhood were not to be tampered with. Conformity was indeed the order of the day.

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But, just the same, Timmy had a pig, cared for by his grandfather, "way upstairs in the attic," and they had long walks, Timmy, his grandfather *and* the pig, up and down the quiet, shady streets of this well-ordered, pigless community!

One day, early that year, Tim's mother made an unscheduled appearance at school, descending upon her son's classroom shortly before the close of the day's activities. Sauntering jauntily in and among the youngsters in Tim's class, she ruffled a touseled head here and patted another there as she greeted Tim's classmates, most of whom were known to her from previous years. Responding freely to her jovial affability and friendly repartee, she established rapport with the group in less time than is required to dot the proverbial "i."

Of inquiring and investigative minds, these fourth graders! As a bolt from the blue came the question, "Mrs. Y., does Timmy *really* have a pig?" The smiling face and whimsical mood now bore faint traces of a frown, though ever so slight. A fleeting, though searching look in Timmy's direction evidenced a little boy, horror in his eyes, chagrin on his face, half hidden under a desk too small too suffice! And horror of horrors! Would the pig vanish?

Busy people though they are, swept along and sometimes virtually engulfed in a frantic world so full of demands as well as little boys, who shall say that mothers everywhere do not have *just the right word* for the small fry when the chips are down. Perceiving the dilemma and sensing the plight of her little boy, Mrs. Y.'s complete equilibrium instantly was restored.

"Why, bless your hearts, children! Did Timmy say he has a pig?"

Twenty-five bright and shining faces nodded in the affirmative. With the full radiance and beauty of her charm filling every cubic inch of the room, came the crucial reply, "If Timmy says he has a pig, *he has a pig.*"

And thus Timmy and his pig were justified; and we all knew such happy times together!

There were stories and poems, clay models, and songs. During Christmas vacation that year Timmy broke his leg and upon returning to classes following the holidays, he stomped down the corridors of the school, classmates and friends lined up on either side, cheering him on! Surely there never was such a grand entrance, and clearly in evidence on the background of a white, plaster of Paris cast was a picture of Timmy's pig, a very present help in trouble!

There came a time when Timmy loaned the pig. "Dickie had him yesterday. He was in a safe place out behind the school. Today Chuckie has him in a secret place in the room." No more is said. The pig is safe but he is *there*. "Teacher got him one day last week when there were important tests that required *every bit of everybody!*"

Needless to say the pig was *real*; he lasted; he belonged. He was a never-ending stimulus to the imaginations of twenty-five boys and girls *and their teacher!* Oh, yes, Timmy's pig was my pig, too—and I shall never forget him. How fortunate indeed is the group which adopts some appealing character so lifelike that he roots his way to become the living motive for so much oral and written expression.

As the year continued with Timmy's pig, he developed personality; he had his likes and dislikes; he grew tired; he went on vacations, he got sick. He shared in joys

and sorrows. He filled the niche of most vivid imagination and he *lived* among us! What a wonderful way to raise piggies—the blessings of the presence sans benefit of the breeze! I highly recommend it!

This is true motivation for writing; this is living, breathing, puffing, snuffing, sleeping, and eating; this is color, sound and movement—the essence of the art of writing! What more plausible excuse do we need?

Many other ways are open to teachers at the early elementary levels in their efforts to help children grow in their creative abilities: listening to and enjoying stories written by all members of the class, hearing the teacher read good literature to the group, and reading for one's self—just the kind of stories and books one likes best. Creative dramatics, with original or borrowed plots, letter writing, oral reporting, singing, and playing, offer other possibilities. Just plain growing, day by day, in a world so excitingly vibrant and appealing to young minds offers wide vistas of expression when capitalized upon by a creativity-minded teacher.

In the teacher's perception of enthusiasms and interests he must have an appreciation for children's ways of thinking about and doing things—skills which are unique for each one—skills that create an environment that respects the worth of each child and encourages each one to be his own best self. It is also the teacher's responsibility to release his *own* best skills as he seeks to nurture the creativity of the individual child and tap the combined capabilities of the group. In so doing, the child thrives in the climate of his own, and his teacher's, creativity.

My thinking has been directed to the satisfactions, interests, and eagerness of children. There is no denying the fact that

(Continued on page 98)

Grouping Practices in Individualized Reading

Individualized Reading rightly implies a personal relationship between teacher and pupil, but it does not follow, as has sometimes been stated, that this places a limitation on good group experiences. There are many wholesome, meaningful, sociable, enjoyable, and fruitful group experiences inherent in such programs. Moreover, even when just one child and the teacher read together, grouping practices constitute an important organizational aspect.

Such grouping practices should be in accord with the unique growth pattern of each and every child in the elementary classroom, physically, emotionally, socially, and academically. They should also be consistent with the principles of seeking, self-selection, pacing, and inherent motivation.

Grouping practices should result in better mental health and in better learning for children by providing a more relaxed classroom atmosphere, by removing or reducing unnecessary pressures, and by fostering unfettered learning progress.

It has been a healthy sign that so far no one pattern of grouping has emerged to cloud the teacher experimentation which has been an outstanding characteristic of the programs described in the literature. By way of suggesting that there are already many ways in which grouping is being carried on in the classrooms and in the fond hopes of stimulating further experimentation, a variety of grouping practices are submitted in this chapter. Three basic types of groupings will be discussed, some

variations of these three, and some supplementary groupings as well.

Three Basic Types of Organizations

The three basic types shall be called here, "Teacher and Child Apart," "Teacher, Child, and Small Group," and "Teacher, Child, and the Class." The first and last of the groupings just named are often referred to as "conference-type" groupings, since in these the teacher gives his more exclusive attention to the one child who is reading with him, and because they have discussions about the work at hand which are conference-like in nature. The two conference types will be discussed first.

Conference-type. "Teacher and Child Apart." Perhaps the best known grouping for individualized reading guidance is the one in which the teacher and one child sit apart from the rest of the class and work together on the reading skills. This is the "Teacher and Child Apart" grouping, and it is suitable for use in any grade.

Usually, in this arrangement, the teacher sits between the child who is reading and the other children in the class. In this way, the reader is afforded some privacy, and still the teacher has a vantage view of the rest of the pupils. At the same time, the children who are working independently may feel the steadying influence of her presence and a sense of her availability to them in case of need.

The particular choice of reading site varies with the situation and with the people involved. Older children may feel quite comfortable in an adult chair pulled alongside the teacher's desk, but it seems somewhat more desirable for smaller and

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younger children to sit in pupil-size chairs. The teacher may have her choice of sitting in a similar chair for additional closeness and informality or in an adult chair for her own greater comfort. When the chairs are placed at a table, the reader has a steady place on which to lay his book and the teacher has a good spot for writing diagnostic notes about the conference. In some cases, the teacher and other class members may wish to have closer contact during the reading; if this is so, then the center of the room may prove to be a desirable reading location.

In the conference-type, "Teacher and Child Apart," children come for their reading turns in a variety of ways. In some classrooms, coming for turns on a volunteer basis is highly prized as being in keeping with the principles of seeking, self-selection, and pacing. When this arrangement is used a "ready and waiting" chair may be added near the other two for the next reader. This procedure may serve as an assurance to the child who is waiting that he will, indeed, be the next reader. It may also serve as a technique to lessen the amount of time lost between the various readers. Since reading turns are highly valued by children, there is seldom, if ever, a dearth of willing volunteers. Nevertheless, the teacher keeps close tabs on the situation in order to insure each child's obtaining his fair share of the reading turns. Sometimes, however, when the teacher and his charges "do down to earth planning" about each child's activities during the reading period, children sometimes prefer to have some kind of order to their turns. If a child knows that he is to read on the specified day, he will probably choose an activity which he can leave at a moment's notice. Occasionally, children like to have the name of the day's tentative list of

readers posted in a prominent place as a reminder. But even when turns are ordered there is a great amount of flexibility. The child who prefers to wait until he finishes the project at hand may easily do so while a willing substitute slips into his reading chair. In one classroom when a child put off his reading turn in this way, he came the next day fairly bursting with eagerness to read, and when the great moment came, he read far more and far better than he had ever done before in the same allotted time. More important than the way in which children come for turns is their opportunity to share in the planning of this with their teacher. However, in the case of the next basic and conference type, some sort of a volunteer arrangement appears to be a logical solution.

Conference Type. "Teacher, Child, and the Class." The conference-type, "Teacher, Child, and the Class," is more generally found in classes above second grade, when children have developed greater skill in reading and working independently. In this organization, the teacher moves about the room, going first to one pupil and then to another as different children signify a readiness and a desire for the reading conference. Since these intermediate and older aged children have at their command a greater ability to unlock pronunciations and the meanings of new words, and since they are learning dictionary skills, more is expected of them by way of preparation for the individualized conference. An especially important contribution which is present in each of the individualized reading groupings, but which is especially notable in the conference type, is the fact that each child has his time alone periodically with a busy and an important adult. For these few minutes each week, at least, he is "number one" with the teacher.

"Teacher, Child, and Small Group." In the third basic grouping, which will be referred to here as "Teacher, Child, and Small Group," five to eight children cluster around the teacher, each reading his own self-selected book at his own speed, or more accurately, own speeds. Of this group, one child has individualized reading guidance from his teacher for a few minutes. Then, relinquishing his position as oral reader, the pupil becomes again a member of the more independent readers clustered around the teacher. The teacher, in turn, gives her attention to a different group member for the same length of time, generally, until each in the group has had a turn or until the reading period is over. Those group members who have been reading more or less independently, may still secure help in having words pronounced by the teacher as needed. With forefingers of each hand, for instance, they might frame the word or phrase which causes them difficulty. They are trained to wait until the teacher finds a moment when she can supply the word without interrupting the train of thought of the main reader. Then she leans over, reads the words, possibly upside down to her, and pronounces them softly to the child. This apparently does not disturb the other readers for they continue on, absorbed with their own reading.

In the "Teacher, Child, and Small Group" organization, children may begin as a group all at one time, or they may come to the group and go from it on a voluntary basis. The group composition may change when a child completes a reading turn; when another child finds an empty spot and joins the group; when a child comes to a good stopping place in his story; when a youngster leaves the group to complete an unfinished project; or when a child's reading thirst has been temporarily satisfied.

In the first grade class, before children have learned to read well silently, this way of reading will be somewhat noisier than other reading classes. Whitcomb, an observer, describes just such a group of oral first graders as follows:

It would amuse you to come into that classroom about January or February and hear a whole group of children reading out loud—you know how in the beginning in first grade children do read out loud—and you could hear in these reading groups all of the children each reading a different book, reading out loud and not being the least bit bothered by any other child in the group. In April and May this had stopped entirely and almost no child was reading aloud and great many were reading without moving their lips.¹

One of the values of this type of grouping is that children have the companionship of their peers in a truly satisfying group experience, with individualized instruction from the teacher, but without most of the disadvantages found in more rigidly structured instruction groups.

In short, the most commonly used daily group arrangements are the two conference types of groupings, "Teacher and Child Apart" and "Teacher, Child, and the Class," and the third grouping, "Teacher, Child, and Small Group." All of these may be used in any classroom, alone or in combination. A possible exception to this rule is that the "Teacher, Child, and the Class," with its heavier demands on the reading and writing abilities of the pupils, seems better suited for grades three and beyond than for grades one and two.

Variations of Basic Groupings

Two variations of the basic daily group arrangements are "Grouping for the Conference" and "Grouping for Social Purpose." Reference to these is not often found;

¹Irene Whitcomb, "Self-selection in Reading: A Panel Discussion," Claremont College Reading Conference, *Twenty-first Yearbook, 1956* (Claremont, California: Claremont College Curriculum Laboratory, 1956), p. 46-47.

nevertheless, they are worthy of consideration.

Grouping for the Conference. When three or four children come together to read orally to their teacher-guide out of their self-selected books, to receive help in reading skills, to discuss their readings, and to decide on ways of sharing their books with their classmates, it may be given the name of "Grouping for the Conference." One of the advantages of this grouping is that it sharpens critical thinking on the part of the children as they discuss their books and argue for or against the inclusion of their book in the sharing time before the class following the conference. This seems to be especially suitable for the intermediate and upper grades where children are reading very rapidly on their own. In the next grouping, children read together for the sake of companionship.

Grouping for Social Purpose. Classroom teachers and administrators are becoming more impressed than ever with ratio between academic success, the mental health of the pupil, and the child's acceptance as a worthy group member. This may account for the fact that some teachers are turning to friendship grouping, or groupings based upon sociometric tests as a basis for forming three or more individualized reading groups. These groups are heterogeneous in every other respect. In the following passage taken from an account by Cornelius, important points are enumerated which help determine the group composition:

A teacher of a first grade group after a period of incidental reading, chart-experience story reading, and informal reading, asked each child in the class, "With whom would you like to read?" His first, second, and third choices confidentially told to the teacher were listed under the child's name.

After the teacher had taken this data from her entire group of thirty-five pupils she formed small groups, satisfying the children's choices to the highest degree possible. There were approximately seven groups, ranging in size

from two to eight children each. The teacher, in forming these groups was recognizing the structure of the society in the group as it existed at the time. She followed regulations for sociometric grouping by: giving first choice to an individual who had been chosen by no one, giving preference to mutual choices, giving the highest possible choice to a child whose choices were not reciprocated, giving everyone at least one of his choices in the group thus formed.²

One of the satisfactions with this grouping is that children of widely differing reading abilities may read together in a group and enjoy each other's presence with no feeling of threat or boredom.

Supplements to Basic Groupings and Variations.

Besides the basic groupings and their variations, which provide the everyday set up for reading, there are supplementary groupings for individualized reading. Some that will be discussed here are: "Spontaneous Social Grouping," "Audience Grouping," "Grouping for Special Interest," "Skill Needs Grouping," and "Total Class Grouping."

Spontaneous Social Grouping. While the aforementioned "Grouping for Social Purpose" is temporary and flexible in nature, "Spontaneous Social Grouping" is even more so, being supplementary to the ongoing organizational pattern. In "Spontaneous Social Grouping" small groups of two, three, or four children may come together just for the purpose of reading or working with a friend or friends. They may read in a corner of a room together or they may read grouped around the teacher for help. If the teacher does not give instructions to the group, this kind of reading fits the category of free-choice, or free-reading, as it is done in other classrooms, but if the groups are under the direct guidance of the teacher, it becomes individualized reading.

²Ruth Cornelius, "Reading with Six-Year-Olds," *Childhood Education*, 26:162, December, 1949.

When two children read together it is sometimes referred to as "Pal Reading." The children may work together, each reading silently from his own self-selected book, or they may work cooperatively on work-type papers. If they read orally to each other, the situation develops into "Audience Reading."

Grouping for Audience Reading. Sometimes children pick a story for "turn about oral reading" with each child holding an identical book or just passing around the same book. Often in such a situation, each child will choose a particular character, and read aloud all of the direct conversation of "Jimmy" or "Mehitabel." In some cases an original play may develop from the reading and subsequent discussion for sharing time. Sometimes children decide during planning time that this is what they would like to do as an activity. In other cases, it is just a natural spontaneous happening.

In one first grade classroom it became customary for one of the more advanced readers, Arthur, to pick up a trade book when he finished an assigned task. Rather than read alone, he would sit by another child, and by mutual consent, would begin to read to him aloud in a soft voice. As other children finished their work, they would also gather around. When the group continued to increase, Arthur, continuing to read, would walk over to a wider space area, sit in front of the group, and turn the book to show the illustrated pages as he had seen his teacher do. In this natural situation, six or seven other six-year-olds, usually boys, would listen, absolutely still, while another six-year-old read to them from a book such as the one by Dr. Seuss (Ted Giesel) entitled *And to Think That It Happened on Mulberry Street*, Published by Random House.

Audience reading may be planned for

by the teacher and pupil. A book is chosen by the child which he likes, which he thinks would appeal to the class as a whole, and which he is able to read. He works on the story individually, in the conference period with the teacher, and, possibly, even at home. When both he and his teacher feel that the story has been "polished" well enough for him to hold the attention and interest of the audience, a group of listeners may be formed, which may or may not comprise the whole class. For some children, the small group is less threatening than the large; for others, there is more challenge and more reward in reading to the entire group. Also, some teachers find it easier to arrange numerous small listening groups while others prefer the whole group arrangement as being simpler and more rewarding. Both situations have value. Even the slow reader may have fine experiences in reading aloud to small and to large groups. It is heart warming when a slow reader confides confidently to his teacher, "Why, they wanted me to read the *whole* book all the way through!"

As children listen to one of their own peers read to them in this audience situation, it is often pleasing to the teacher to observe with what rapt attention and with what pleasure the children respond to the oral reading. This seems to be so for a number of reasons. First, instead of being a story hashed over and over in front of others, as in a reading circle, the story is often new to them, and they listen eagerly to the unfolding tale. If they have read the story themselves or heard it read, they listen to it as to an old friend and anticipate favorite parts. Children listen to see if this is a story which they might profitably select for themselves over and above some alternate choice. One slow reader confided to his teacher that he never read a book unless he had heard it read aloud as he

didn't want to waste precious time on a book he didn't like. Finally, since the children do not hear each other read often, they seem frankly interested in, even fascinated, stimulated, and encouraged by the reader's performance. Possibly there is a high degree of empathy between reader and group; possibly some sort of self-evaluation is noted here. Teachers report that when reading is shared in this audience-type of grouping, that the reading appetite is increased for the class as a whole and reading interests are broadened.

Grouping for Special Interest. A supplementary grouping that is often very stimulating is when children group for reading because they share special interest in the same topic. Children who are concerned with the wonders of outer space can read their different books together, each at his own level of ability, and afterwards pool their information during the discussion period which follows. Here, critical thinking is of an essence. One child may challenge another child's statement on the basis of what he has read in another book. Both may then go back to their sources, their own self-selected books. They may need to read these aloud to find whether one or the other has misinterpreted or misread an author. If both authors really do disagree, then steps are taken to determine which is the authority. Other books on the same topic may be sought to see if there is some support for one or the other opinion. Letters to the authors, and in some cases, visits from one of the authors might even materialize.

Possibly one of the biggest values of "Special Interest Grouping" is that interest cuts across reading levels. Books can fortunately be found, in ever increasing amounts, on the same topic for children of varying ability levels. Thus, the fastest and the slowest reader may share mutual enthusi-

asms and stimulating discussions, which may serve to show each to the other in a new light. When two or three share an interest, it may be an able reader who couples with a less able reader, but they both enjoy the experience. Indeed, the able reader is often seen helping the less able with some of the difficult words. Sometimes it is three children, each able to help the other in some way, who band together.

There are many occasions for children to come together for special interest. Sometimes it is to read together as committee members in social studies in order to produce a cooperative group report. Sometimes it is necessary for volunteers to look for the answer to special problems posed by the class as a whole. Interest grouping is purposeful, and not just reading for reading's sake. Another purposeful grouping, and possibly the most important of all the supplementary groups is that which is based on the skill needs of two or more individuals.

Grouping for Skill Needs. As the teacher observes the class thoughtfully or consults diagnostic notes about the readers, it may be noticed that several children have the same difficulty with a reading skill. When this is discovered, children are invited to form a supplementary and temporary group to work on the problem. When the reading record is the basis of decision, it should reveal the book and page number where the children encountered their difficulties. Books of a kind may be supplied the pupils for this work, or the study words may be put into a new context for study purposes. Work sheets may be employed or the blackboard may serve as the focus of attention. The group meets only once if the skill is mastered with one session, but it may meet periodically, and, perhaps, with a diminishing community, until the need for the grouping has been dissipated. The next and

last separate grouping to be discussed sometimes includes the teaching of the skills, but in a larger setting.

The Total Class as a Group. Very often inquiring teachers ask if there is any place in an individualized reading program for working with the total class. The answer is, "Yes, indeed." There is not, however, room for total class teaching of reading as an everyday substitute for individualized reading grouping. But there are a great many occasions during the day when the total class will read together bits of information pertinent to all.

Examples of this are the experience charts and other work type reading charts which are used from the lowest to the highest grades; announcements are posted on and read from the blackboard or bulletin board; and worksheets which offer new material to all but which are not too difficult for the slow learner.

Some reading skills may be introduced to the class as a whole. For instance, in the first grade, beginning sounds of words may be the focus of attention. Slow readers, middle, and fast alike need practice in the skill, and it does not necessarily follow that the slower reader is not able to distinguish the beginning sound; his particular difficulty or difficulties may lie elsewhere. When it does become evident that certain children need help with the new skill, then the individualized reading conference or "Grouping for Skill Needs" take over. In the upper grades, children may be introduced to a reference tool such as the proper use of some part of the dictionary. This may be a whole class presentation, but again, this does not preclude the follow-up work of individual attention where and when it is needed.

Reading as a total group experience has a definite place even in an individualized reading classroom. It seems difficult to see

how it could even be avoided unless the wall space were kept absolutely devoid of learning material, and that would certainly not be in keeping with the dynamic classroom necessary to individualized reading.

Combinations of Groupings

At any earlier point it was indicated that the basic groupings could be used alone or in combination with each other with the sole caution that "Teacher, Child, and the Class" might not work as well as some others at the first and second grade level. It is also true with the variations of the basic groupings and the supplementary groupings. They all have values and should be used freely whenever it is found that they will enrich the classroom experience. Newman discusses some combinations of these groupings as follows:

Frequently, the first ten minutes are devoted to the teaching of a skill that is needed by the entire class. . . .

The children select their books and settle down to read. While they are reading, I may assist in one of several ways. A group that shares a common skill difficulty may meet with me to work and drill on the same problem. We use pages from workbooks that are applicable to the specific area. If I am not working with a group, during the course of the period, I may interview four or five children intensively and thus continue to discover specific weaknesses and provide drill work. In the case of the more advanced reader, I may be working on only comprehension and contextual problems. A more general overview of the class work may be gleaned if I walk around and sit with twelve or fifteen children during the hour. During the reading time, I may be called upon to answer questions about individual reading problems or help in the selection of books.⁷

Here, we have seen a teacher in a single session combine "The Total Class as a Group," "Grouping for Skill Needs," and

⁷Karel Newman, "Individualized Reading," Nancy Larrick (ed.), *Reading in Action*. International Reading Association Conference Proceedings, Vol. II (New York: Scholastic Magazines, 1957), p. 146.

"Conference-type Groupings" which appear to be of more than one kind. The "Teacher, Child, and the Total Class," is evident as the teacher goes around and sits with each child; the intensive interviewing might be the "Teacher and Child Apart" grouping. Provision for drill work might include a "Grouping for Skill Needs."

In an individualized reading program, there is a need for a healthy balance between individualization of instruction and socialization for children; some of this balance may be achieved by a happy combination of reading groupings.

Summary

It has been the purpose of this article to point up a number of possible ways in

which grouping has been done in classrooms at the elementary school level. It is heartily hoped that this will help to emphasize that there is no one right way, no pattern for individualized reading which must be followed. It is expected that the three "basic groupings," the two variations of the basic groupings (all of which provide frameworks for the daily reading activities), and the five supplementary groupings (which may be a necessary part of the daily activities or enrichments of it, as well as the combinations of these groupings), will serve to whet the appetite of the experimenting teacher and spur him on to resolve and evolve the way best for him and for his own particular group of children.

CREATIVITY IN WRITING IS WHERE YOU FIND IT

(Continued from page 90)

in dealing with ideas that really move, in fact and in fancy, in harmony with a form that has meaning for children, is an exciting and adventuresome prospect in many classrooms. While a teacher's efforts may be faltering to weak in the initial steps of attempting a creative program in writing, his courage will increase as he notes the

beginnings of success in such an undertaking. While it is understandable that teachers are reluctant to adopt untraditional methods which may jeopardize temporarily their feeling of security, all will recognize that teaching itself can be an art form when one is willing to experience creativity along *with* children in their oral and written expression.

Dividends are great. Why not give it a try?

Nationwide English Contests

- GRAMMAR
- VOCABULARY
- SPEECH
- CURRENT EVENTS
- SPELLING
- COMPOSITION
- LIBRARY SKILLS
- FOREIGN LANGUAGE

Please Note: These contests are not sponsored by NCTE but by Educational Stimuli under the direction of Donald R. Honz.

EDUCATIONAL STIMULI'S NATIONWIDE ENGLISH EXAMINATIONS

The universal problem of getting students to review is partially solved by having your students participate in a competitive examination where they have a chance to see how they measure up to students from other sections of the nation. You will be amazed at their renewed interest. Even the average students will strive to do better. Here is a real opportunity to vitalize your teaching.

These are not contests as such but examinations to give teachers of English an opportunity to find their students' weak points, to build up interest in the study of English and, primarily, to motivate the students to review on their own, thereby saving valuable class time.

Many teachers are content to administer the same standardized English examinations to their students each year to determine where they rank. These same teachers unconsciously drill their students to meet the requirements of these tests. As a result, their students do quite well. This is not possible with the ANNUAL NATIONWIDE EXAMINATIONS, for no one sees them until the day on which they will be administered.

Also, standardized tests do not motivate the students since there is no competition and no awards are granted. Competition on a nationwide level with an opportunity for the students to earn awards is the answer if you really want your students to grow in their study of English.

Students will be ranked on a percentile basis which means that you will be able to determine the exact percentile ranking of each of your students. This will enable you to see how your students performed in relation to students from other parts of the nation, for these percentiles will be based on the scores of all participating students. Last year over 200,000 tests in several subject areas were sent to schools in every section of the country.

The examinations have been constructed so as to make the students think. They are a real challenge. When the students are cognizant of this, they become more zealous in their preparation. I am sure that once your students have had the experience of participating in these examinations, you will notice a marked improvement in their grasp of fundamentals. The examinations may contain several points that you have not covered but if the students have mastered what you have covered, they should do quite well. The examinations are of the objective type so as to be more extensive. The time limit for each of the examinations will be 40 minutes.

The examinations are being offered to students on grade levels 4-12. Be sure to indicate on which level your students are participating. The same test is administered to students on all levels. For example, a seventh grader would take the same grammar test as a twelfth grader. Naturally, the examinations will be more difficult for students on the elementary level. It is believed, however, that if students are exposed to such examinations in the lower grades, they will develop an interest in language at an early age, thereby giving them more opportunity for development. Of course, percentiles are set up for each grade level, so your students will be competing against students only on their own grade level.

In regard to awards, those students having a percentile ranking of 80 or higher will receive a certificate of merit stating their achievement. Those students in the 98th percentile or higher will receive a SPECIAL certificate acknowledging their outstanding showing. The FIVE schools that report the greatest number of students in the 98th percentile or higher will be awarded a beautiful plaque. This total will comprise students on all levels and in all six testing areas, that is, grammar, spelling, composition, vocabulary, speech and library skills. In other words, it would be to a school's advantage to enter students on all levels and in all six testing areas.

In order that I may keep the expenses down to a bare minimum, I have decided to let each teacher correct his own tests. I think that this will be more satisfactory, for it will afford the teacher an opportunity to see where his students are having trouble. The results (certified by your principal) will be forwarded to this office for processing. You will receive the results of the examination and your awards before the end of the school year.

Your tests will be sent from this office in March. You may administer the examinations any time through April. You need not administer these examinations in one day, that is, you may administer the grammar examination on one day, the vocabulary examination the day after, etc. You might want to administer one examination each week. The point is that you will have the whole month of April to administer any one or all six of the examinations.

I will have to request that you enter a minimum of 25 students in any one of the examinations. For example, if you decide to enter your students in the spelling and grammar examinations, you must enter a minimum of 25 students in each of the two areas. It would be ideal if you would enter all your students.

The fee will be \$.10 per student in each test area. For example, if you wanted to enter a student in the spelling examination only, the fee would be \$.10 but if you wanted to enter a student in two areas, the fee would be \$.20, three areas, \$.30, four areas, \$.40, five areas, \$.50, six areas, \$.60.

NATIONWIDE GRAMMAR AND PUNCTUATION EXAMINATION

Here is an opportunity to vitalize your grammar sessions. The Nationwide Grammar Examination consists of two basic sections. They are: (1) Grammar-Basic and Advanced (2) Punctuation and Capitalization.

Copies of previous examinations are available in quantity with key and norms from this office at \$.05 each. With the norms you will be able to compare the scores that your students achieve with those that were made in previous grammar examinations by students from all parts of the nation. These examinations are very good for review. They will allow your students to make a more efficient preparation for this year's examination, for it will follow the same pattern. You should order these practice tests now so your students can begin preparing early in the school year.

Another valuable aid which will help your students prepare for this year's Nationwide Grammar and Punctuation Examination is a little booklet containing previous examinations. Accompanying these tests are the keys and percentile tables. With this little booklet the student will be able to conduct his own review, for in the back of the booklet are the rules which are covered in each of the examinations. These are referred to by little numbers after each answer in the key. The student takes one of the tests, corrects it and then refers to the percentile table to compare his score with those made by students from every section of the country. Finally, he checks on the rules of the items that he missed. He then has this little booklet for ready reference the rest of the year. These little booklets are available in quantity at \$.50 each.

Since all six examinations are to be administered in the same manner, please refer to the above section for full details concerning deadline, awards, fees, etc.

NATIONWIDE SPELLING EXAMINATION

Here is something that has been needed for a long time. It gives you an opportunity to get your students really interested in spelling.

This examination will be set up like the typical standardized spelling test. The students will have to correct misspelled words, discover misspelled words in sentences, etc. Words that the students would not ordinarily use in their writing will not be employed in this spelling examination. Words that are commonly misspelled on all levels, that is, spelling demons, will make up the examination. Even students on the fourth grade level will know the meanings of these words. Using big or unfamiliar words would cause even the excellent speller to misspell. The examination is very practical from this standpoint.

A list of words for which the student will be held responsible is available. It would be a good idea if each of your students kept one of these word lists in his notebook so that he could begin preparing immediately for this year's examination. These lists are available at \$.05 each. Copies of previous spelling examinations are available in quantity at \$.05 each. These tests serve as excellent spelling drills.

Since all six examinations are to be administered in the same manner, please refer to page one of this leaflet for full details concerning deadline, awards, fees, etc.

NATIONWIDE COMPOSITION SKILLS EXAMINATION

This examination will test your students on their knowledge of writing skills such as recognizing faulty constructions, effective word order, wordiness, writing techniques, etc.

Previous composition examinations are available in quantity with key and norms at \$.05 each.

Since all six examinations are to be administered in the same manner, please refer to page one of this leaflet for full details concerning deadline, awards, fees, etc.

NATIONWIDE VOCABULARY EXAMINATION

One of the things the English teacher should constantly be working on is word study. A large vocabulary enables the student to read, write and speak more effectively. Merely giving the students lists of words to look up and then use in sentences will not help the student to any great extent nor will it develop his interest. There must be some systematic attack on words such as the study of roots, prefixes, suffixes, etc. In other words, you must attack the study of words from every possible avenue.

All words that will appear in this year's examination are on a word list that you may obtain for your students. If your students master these words, they should do quite well on the examination. These word lists are priced at \$.05 each. Copies of previous examinations are available in quantity at \$.05 each.

The Annual Nationwide Vocabulary Examination will not be an ordinary examination, that is, just like the run-of-the-mill standardized test. It will be a real challenge to your students and will be cleverly devised to find out whether your students have merely memorized the word list or really studied them to the point of understanding each word.

Since all six examinations are to be administered in the same manner, please refer to page one of this leaflet for full details concerning deadline, awards, fees, etc.

NATIONWIDE LIBRARY SKILLS EXAMINATION

It is surprising how many students enter college without adequate knowledge in the use of the library. This examination will motivate your students to become more efficient in these skills. Since this is the first year the examination is being offered, it is difficult to describe its content, but it will test your students on the use of the card catalogue, encyclopedia, Readers' Guide, etc.

Students may prepare for this examination by working out library and dictionary units which are available from this office in quantity at \$.05 each. Also available in quantity at \$.05 each is a term paper guide.

Since all six examinations are to be administered in the same manner, please refer to page one of this leaflet for full details concerning deadline, awards, fees, etc.

NATIONWIDE SPEECH EXAMINATION

This examination will test your students on their knowledge of the correct pronunciation of troublesome words, mechanics (eye contact, gesticulation), oral composition, etc. Students will not be expected to know technical terms such as the make-up of the speech mechanism, theories, etc.

Since all six examinations are to be administered in the same manner, please refer to page one of this leaflet for full details concerning deadline, awards, fees, etc.

ENRICH YOUR TEACHING WITH HELPFUL TEACHING AIDS

Here is what you've been looking for! Materials designed to promote interest in the study of English. Since space does not permit a description of these materials, I am offering all the materials in one package for \$7.00. I am sure you will find them most helpful. You need only pay for those aids which you can use; you need not even return the others. I will take your word. Included in this package of aids are: theme topics, library unit, dictionary unit, short story unit, guide for writing a term paper, tongue twisters, speech activities and many others. Over 30 different aids are included in this package. How can you possibly lose on this offer!

DYNAMIC TAPE RECORDINGS FOR ENGLISH

In order that I may acquaint you with some of the outstanding tape recordings that I have in the field of English, I am making the following offer: A series of six of our most popular programs (nearly three hours of program time) which include: "Tale of Two Cities" starring Brian Aherne and "Macbeth" for \$10.00. Here again I am so sure that you will like at least one or two of these programs that I request you remit for only those programs that you honestly think you can use. You may do what you will with the rest of the programs. I now have a total of 23 programs.

DONALD R. HONZ

Director, Educational Stimuli, 2012 Hammond Avenue
Superior, Wisconsin

If you are planning to enter this year's examinations, please indicate below your number of entries for the various grade levels as we would like to know as soon as possible how many copies will have to be printed. **You need not remit until you receive the tests.** This will be sometime in March.

Grammar—

4th..... 5th..... 6th..... 7th..... 8th..... 9th..... 10th..... 11th..... 12th.....

Total Number of Grammar Tests Desired _____ (at \$.10 each) Total \$ _____

Spelling—

4th..... 5th..... 6th..... 7th..... 8th..... 9th..... 10th..... 11th..... 12th.....

Total Number of Spelling Tests Desired _____ (at \$.10 each) Total \$ _____

Composition—

4th..... 5th..... 6th..... 7th..... 8th..... 9th..... 10th..... 11th..... 12th.....

Total Number of Composition Tests Desired _____ (at \$.10 each) Total \$ _____

Vocabulary—

7th..... 8th..... 9th..... 10th..... 11th..... 12th.....

Total Number of Vocabulary Tests Desired _____ (at \$.10 each) Total \$ _____

Library Skills—

4th..... 5th..... 6th..... 7th..... 8th..... 9th..... 10th..... 11th..... 12th.....

Total Number of Library Skills Tests Desired _____ (at \$.10 each) Total \$ _____

Speech—

4th..... 5th..... 6th..... 7th..... 8th..... 9th..... 10th..... 11th..... 12th.....

Total Number of Speech Tests Desired _____ (at \$.10 each) Total \$ _____

Current Events—

4th..... 5th..... 6th..... 7th..... 8th..... 9th..... 10th..... 11th..... 12th.....

Total Number of Current Events Tests Desired _____ (at \$.10 each) Total \$ _____

Grand Total For Tests \$ _____

Teaching Aids

Please check the items listed below that you desire. Please do not remit until you receive your order.

	Quantity	Total
_____ Package of English Aids (\$7.00)	_____	\$ _____
_____ Series of English Recordings (\$10.00)	_____	\$ _____
_____ Word List for Vocabulary Examination (\$.05)	_____	\$ _____
_____ Spelling List for Spelling Examination (\$.05)	_____	\$ _____
_____ Booklet of Previous Grammar Examinations (\$.50)	_____	\$ _____
_____ Term Paper Guide (\$.05)	_____	\$ _____
_____ Dictionary Unit (\$.05)	_____	\$ _____
_____ Library Unit (\$.05)	_____	\$ _____
_____ 1959 Spelling Examination (\$.05)	_____	\$ _____
_____ 1960 Spelling Examination (\$.05)	_____	\$ _____
_____ 1959 Composition Examination (\$.05)	_____	\$ _____
_____ 1960 Composition Examination (\$.05)	_____	\$ _____
_____ 1959 Vocabulary Examination (\$.05)	_____	\$ _____
_____ 1960 Vocabulary Examination (\$.05)	_____	\$ _____
_____ 1957 Grammar Examination (\$.05)	_____	\$ _____
_____ 1958 Grammar Examination (\$.05)	_____	\$ _____
_____ 1959 Grammar Examination (\$.05)	_____	\$ _____
_____ 1960 Grammar Examination (\$.05)	_____	\$ _____
_____ Details Concerning Foreign Language Contests	_____	\$ _____

These tests are available in quantity at \$.05 each. Single copies with key and norms are \$.25 each.

Grand Total For Aids \$ _____

Ship To: _____

• •

Tear out and file for ready reference.

Tear out and file for ready reference.

Televiewing by Children and Youth

Eleven Years of Surveys and Studies

"Haven't people always had TV?" asked nine-year-old Sally. Sally is one of today's children who cannot remember a world without TV. How has TV affected these children and others who have known TV for shorter periods of time?

Diverse opinions have been expressed about the effects of TV as a positive force. Some writers minimize its significance, while others stress undesirable results. Parents have asserted that TV is affecting adversely children's interest in reading and in other academic pursuits. Some teachers, too, have pointed to certain unfortunate features of TV insofar as children's interest and effort in school are concerned. They state that TV is a "time trap for children" and that "TV produces not only idlers, but also bad taste and bad manners." These are a few of the complaints often heard.

It is certainly true that TV consumes a great deal of our time. In 1956, it was estimated

... last year in homes with television sets—three-quarters of all the families in the country—more total time was spent watching television than in any other single activity except sleep.¹ And *Time* magazine of October 13, 1958, cited a report showing that 43 million U.S. homes had their sets turned on an average of five hours and 56 minutes each day.

Perhaps the most general criticism of TV relates to the excessively large numbers of Western and crime programs shown. Some

parents point out that constant viewing of Westerns and frequent exposure to crime presentations, although perhaps not providing the cause of delinquent behavior, may lead children readily to accept or condone antisocial behavior. And they regret the general failure of TV to offer children experiences which will lead them more frequently to cultivate worthy ideals and values.

What Do the Children Think about TV?

The almost universal appeal of TV to children may be seen from the following account in *Time*, March 24, 1958, entitled "Opiate of the Pupils":

In Snyder, N.Y. (pop. 18,000), an upper-middle-class suburb of Buffalo, a school survey found that kindergarten tots are at their TV sets roughly half as much time (14.2 hours a week) as in their classrooms, but as pupils grow up to the sixth grade they devote almost equal time to school (27-½ hours a week) and televiewing (26 hours a week). . . .

Offered a choice, 51 per cent of the children would prefer a sound spanking to a parental blackout of their favorite program. . . .

Concluded a school official: "Television is changing American children from irresistible forces into immovable objects."

Today's children are drawn to televiewing as to no other leisure activity. Our recent studies included many enthusiastic endorsements of TV by pupils.² Jim, age ten, wrote as follows:

Paul Witty and Paul Kinsella, "Children and the Electronic Pied Piper," *Education*, Vol. 80, No. 1, Sept. 1959. The studies for the past ten years have been reported in *Elementary English* each year. The first study entitled "Children's, Parents', and Teachers' Reactions to Television," appeared in *Elementary English* Vol. 27, October 1950. In the recent studies, assistance has been received from Ann Coomer, Paul Kinsella, T. F. Gustafson, Robert Sizemore and others.

¹ "Special Report: Television, the New Cyclops," *Business Week*, March 10, 1956.

Dr. Witty is Professor of Education and Director of the Psycho-Educational Clinic at Northwestern University.

Sometimes I wonder whatever in the world people of years ago did without TV. . . . Television, it certainly is a wonderful invention! You can flip a switch, and right there in front of your eyes, is your favorite actor and/or actress. There comes Lassie, and yes, it is the "King of Rock 'n' Roll" himself, Elvis Presley, or rather Private Presley.

Television, to me seems to draw the world closer together, just as the airplane did!

The television set has indeed taken the place in children's life and affection held by the movies and radio in the two earlier decades.

Studies of Television

In seeking to evaluate the charges made against TV, one may profitably examine the results of investigations made since TV appeared.

In this article the writer will summarize the results of eleven studies of TV. Throughout the past eleven years he has obtained responses concerning televiewing each year from approximately 2,000 pupils, their parents, and their teachers. The studies were made in Chicago, Evanston, Gary, Skokie, and neighboring communities by the use of questionnaires and interviews.

In 1949, TV came to the Chicago area. By May, 1950, 43 per cent of our school children reported that they had access to TV. The percentages increased to 68 in 1951, 88 in 1952, and in 1953, to 92. In 1955 and 1956, 97 per cent had TV sets at home. Studies made by teachers in Chicago, Skokie, and Evanston in 1958 also yielded a percentage of 97. In 1959, 99 per cent of the Evanston children had sets; 31 per cent had two sets; 7.5 per cent, 3 or more sets; and 3 per cent had color TV. In 1960, 98.3 per cent had TV; 34 per cent reported 2 or more sets; 10 per cent reported 3 or more sets; and 3 per cent had color TV.

Amount of Televiewing

In 1950, some writers appeared to believe that televiewing would prove a pass-

ing fancy. That this prediction has not been realized may be seen from the fact that children now actually spend about as much time with TV as they did when TV was new. In 1950, the elementary school pupils spent on the average 21 hours each week with TV; and in 1951, the average dropped to 19 hours. There was a small increase during the next two years—to 23 hours in 1953. In 1955, the average was 24 hours, while in 1957, it was 22 hours. In 1958, the average for elementary pupils was 20 hours, and in 1959, the average was 21 hours. In 1960, the average was 21 hours.

From the first, high school students were found to give less time to TV than that given by younger pupils. Thus the average for 1951 was 14 hours per week. In 1958, it was 13 hours, and in 1959, 12 hours. In 1960, 14 hours was the average reported.

In 1950, the parents averaged 24 hours each week in televiewing, about 20 hours in 1951, 19 hours in 1953, 21 hours in 1955, and 20 hours in 1957. The average was 19 hours in 1958, 20.5 hours in 1959, and in 1960, 20 hours.

Teachers continue to spend less time with TV than do the children or their parents. Very few teachers had TV sets at first. By 1951, 25 per cent had TV; their average televiewing time was 9 hours per week. In 1953, the average was 12; and again in 1955 it was 12 hours. The average of 12 hours persisted in 1957 and 1958 while 11 hours was the average in 1959. In 1960, the teachers' average was 12 hours. Data on amount of televiewing are presented in Table I.

What Are the Favorite Programs?

Favorite programs change, and year by year new programs become popular. In 1950, the children's favorites were (in order): *Hopalong Cassidy*, *Howdy Doody*, *Lone Ranger*, *Milton Berle*, and *Arthur*

Table I
Average Hours Spent Weekly with Television

	<u>1951</u>	<u>1953</u>	<u>1955</u>	<u>1957</u>	<u>1958</u>	<u>1959</u>	<u>1960</u>
Elementary School Pupils	19	23	24	22	20	21	21
High School Pupils	14	17	14	12	13	12	14
Parents	20	19	21	20	19	20.5	20
Teachers	9	12	12	12	12	11	12

Godfrey. In 1952, *I Love Lucy* became the best liked program of boys and girls. Table II presents favorite programs from 1950 through 1960.

I Love Lucy continued in first place until 1955, when acclaim went to *Disneyland*. *Rin Tin Tin* and *Lassie* also became very popular. In 1956, *Disneyland* again held first rank with *I Love Lucy*, third. In 1957, the favorites were *Disneyland*, *Mickey Mouse Club*, *I Love Lucy*, and *Lassie*. Changes took place rapidly and in 1958 the following favorites appeared: *Zorro*, *Disneyland*, *Bugs Bunny*, *Shock Theatre*, and *Mickey Mouse Club*.

By far the most popular program for elementary school pupils in 1959 was a new presentation, *77 Sunset Strip*. Another new program on the list of favorites was *Huckle-*

berry Hound. *Maverick* appeared in third place. In 1960, *Dennis the Menace* and *Dobie Gillis* were the favorites. One may compare in Table III, the best liked programs of primary and intermediate grade children. It will be noted that *Huckleberry Hound* was first in 1959 and that *Zorro* fell from first place in 1958 to fifth place in 1959 in the primary group. In the intermediate group, *Zorro* was replaced in 1959 by *77 Sunset Strip*, but *Shock Theatre* maintained second place. *Zorro* was not in the first five favorites of the primary group in 1960. *Bugs Bunny* did appear in all primary lists of five favorites for 1958, 1959, and 1960. In 1960, *Dennis the Menace* was the most popular program for the primary grade pupils, and *Dobie Gillis* appeared at the top of the list for the intermediate grade pupils.

Table II
TV Preferences of Children, High School Pupils,
Their Parents and Teachers (1950-1960)

<u>Children</u>	<u>High School Pupils</u>	<u>Parents</u>	<u>Teachers</u>
		<u>1950</u>	
Hopalong Cassidy		Arthur Godfrey	
Howdy Doody		Milton Berle	
Lone Ranger		Sports	
Arthur Godfrey		Fred Waring/ Kukla, Fran, & Ollie	
		<u>1951</u>	
Crusader Rabbit	Sports	Arthur Godfrey	What's My Line?
Hopalong Cassidy/ Wild Bill Hickok	Milton Berle	Fred Waring	Current Events & News
Howdy Doody	Toast of the Town	Milton Berle	Fred Waring
Uncle Mistletoe	Arthur Godfrey	Sports	Your Show of Shows
Lone Ranger	Fred Waring	Mama/ What's My Line?	Toast of the Town

Table II (Cont.)

TV Preferences of Children, High School Pupils,
Their Parents and Teachers (1950-1960)

<u>Children</u>	<u>High School Pupils</u>	<u>Parents</u>	<u>Teachers</u>
<u>1952</u>			
I Love Lucy My Friend Irma Roy Rogers Red Skelton Tom Corbett	I Love Lucy Red Skelton Sports Colgate Comedy Hour What's My Line?	I Love Lucy Arthur Godfrey What's My Line? Mama Plays	News Meet the Press What's My Line? Clifton Utley I Love Lucy
<u>1953</u>			
I Love Lucy Superman Red Buttons Dragnet Roy Rogers	I Love Lucy Dragnet Colgate Comedy Hour Arthur Godfrey Red Buttons	I Love Lucy What's My Line? Omnibus Arthur Godfrey Mr. Peepers	Meet the Press Omnibus News What's My Line? Mr. Peepers
<u>1954</u>			
I Love Lucy Dragnet My Little Margie Roy Rogers Topper/Superman	I Love Lucy Dragnet I Led Three Lives Jackie Gleason/ This Is Your Life/ Colgate Comedy Hour Liberace	I Love Lucy This Is Your Life See It Now What's My Line? Kraft TV Theatre	What's My Line? Kraft TV Theatre Fred Waring Person to Person Omnibus
<u>1955</u>			
Disneyland Rin Tin Tin Lassie I Love Lucy George Gobel	George Gobel Disneyland Toast of the Town Medic I Love Lucy/Dragnet	Person to Person Medic This Is Your Life Disneyland I Love Lucy	Life Is Worth Living Person to Person What's My Line? Omnibus I Love Lucy
<u>1956</u>			
Disneyland Mickey Mouse Club I Love Lucy Rin Tin Tin Lassie	Baseball and Sports Toast of the Town Perry Como Alfred Hitchcock \$64,000 Question	I Love Lucy \$64,000 Question Lawrence Welk Disneyland Toast of the Town	\$64,000 Question/ What's My Line? Life Is Worth Living Toast of the Town Wide Wide World Our Miss Brooks
<u>1957</u>			
Disneyland Mickey Mouse Club I Love Lucy Lassie Fury	Steve Allen Cheyenne Perry Como Father Knows Best Bob Cummings	I Love Lucy Lawrence Welk Perry Como Father Knows Best Omnibus	Lawrence Welk Perry Como Loretta Young Disneyland Wide Wide World
<u>1958</u>			
Zorro Disneyland Bugs Bunny Shock Theatre Mickey Mouse Club	Maverick Gunsmoke Steve Allen Shock Theatre Father Knows Best	Playhouse 90 Father Knows Best Perry Como Dinah Shore Lawrence Welk	Playhouse 90 Bold Journey Perry Como News Wide Wide World

Table II (Cont.)

TV Preferences of Children, High School Pupils,
Their Parents and Teachers (1950-1960)

<u>Children</u>	<u>High School Pupils</u>	<u>Parents</u>	<u>Teachers</u>
<u>1959</u>			
77 Sunset Strip Huckleberry Hound Maverick Father Knows Best Shock Theatre	Maverick American Bandstand Father Knows Best Dick Clark Show Steve Allen	Playhouse 90 Father Knows Best News What's My Line? 77 Sunset Strip	Playhouse 90 News What's My Line?/ Voice of Firestone Bold Journey Hallmark Hall of Fame Today/Omnibus
<u>1960</u>			
Dennis The Menace Dobie Gillis Danny Thomas Show Three Stooges 77 Sunset Strip	Maverick The Untouchables Twilight Zone Alcoa Presents Perry Mason	Playhouse 90 News Jack Paar Sports Danny Thomas Show	Playhouse 90 News Play of the Week What's My Line? Lawrence Welk

Table IV gives the favorite programs of junior high school pupils. Noticeable were the high frequencies of *Shock Theatre* and Western programs in 1958 and 1959. Such programs were clearly more popular among boys than among girls. In 1960, new favorites include *Twilight Zone* which was the first choice of both boys and girls. *Twilight Zone* was popular also among high school students; however, it may be noted in Table II that *Maverick* attained first place in 1958, 1959, and 1960.

The favorite programs of the parents have changed greatly. At first, *Arthur Godfrey* and *Milton Berle* were at the top of the list, and for several years *I Love Lucy* held first rank. The favorite programs of 1957 included: *I Love Lucy*, *Lawrence Welk*, *Perry Como*, and *Father Knows Best*, while in 1958, these programs attained high favor: *Playhouse 90*, *Father Knows Best*, *Perry Como*, *Dinah Shore*, and *Lawrence Welk*. It is of interest that *Playhouse 90* and *Father Knows Best* maintained first and second places in 1959. And *Playhouse 90* was the most popular program in 1960.

What's My Line? appeared as the first choice of teachers in 1951 and continued to be very popular for several years. The teachers showed less enthusiasm for *I Love Lucy* than did their pupils and the parent group during the years 1952-1957. In 1958, these programs were highest on the teachers' list: *Playhouse 90*, *Bold Journey*, *Perry Como*, *News*, and *Wide Wide World*. In 1959 and in 1960 *Playhouse 90* was in first place.

TV and Health

How is TV affecting children's health? In our first studies parents stated that as a result of TV, children's vision was suffering, and that they slept less, played less, and were somewhat more nervous and disturbed. Fewer parents now voice these complaints.

Our more recent investigations indicated that most elementary school children spend about the same amount of hours in sleep as did children before the advent of TV.

Insofar as vision is concerned, the National Society for the Prevention of Blind-

Table III

Favorite TV Programs, Elementary School—1958, 1959 and 1960

GRADES 1-3			
1958	1959	1958	1960
Zorro	Huckleberry Hound	Zorro	Dennis The Menace
Bugs Bunny	Bugs Bunny	Shock Theatre	Dobie Gillis
Mickey Mouse	Disneyland	Father Knows Best	77 Sunset Strip
Blue Fairy	Lassie	Disneyland	Shock Theatre
Disneyland	Zorro	Maverick	Maverick
		Father Knows Best	Rifleman
			Father Knows Best

Table IV

Favorite TV Programs, Junior High School—1958, 1959 and 1960

BOYS			
1958	1959	1958	1960
American Bandstand	American Bandstand	Shock Theatre	Twilight Zone
Dick Clark Show	American Bandstand	Maverick	The Untouchables
Father Knows Best	and 77 Sunset Strip	Gunsnake	Baseball
Maverick	Hawaiian Eye	Zorro	Wrestling
Donna Reed Show	Danny Thomas and Dobie Gillis	American Bandstand	Alcoa Presents
	Dick Clark		

ness has stated that the eyes are not usually adversely affected in televiewing if the rules of proper seating, clear focusing of the set, and proper lighting of the room are observed. Some parents do not permit lengthy, continuous periods of televiewing but insist that children interrupt long periods of televiewing by the introduction of more active pursuits or outdoor activities. Moreover, parents are increasingly devising TV schedules for the family. Certain programs are selected, sometimes by family agreement, with due consideration for other activities and interests in a total week's schedule. Yet problems persist and are cited rather frequently.

TV, Recreation, Hobbies, and Problem Behavior

Writers have asserted that children today tend to spend less time in outdoor play, hobbies, sports, and creative activities than they did in former years. This condition is sometimes attributed to the influence of TV. Our earlier studies (1950) did reveal some reduction in hobbies and in outdoor activities. However, several more recent studies show a persistence of old hobbies and the appearance of new ones since TV arrived. For example, T. C. Battin, in a study reported in 1954, found that 57 per cent of the boys and 59 per cent of the girls followed the same hobbies as before TV.³ Moreover, 38 per cent of the boys and 34 per cent of the girls reported the cultivation of new hobbies, while only 5 per cent of the boys and 7 per cent of the girls indicated less hobby interest. It is true, of course, that many pupils today cannot recall a time when they did not have TV.

³T. C. Battin, *Television and Youth*, report published by TV Information Committee, National Association of Radio and TV Broadcasters, Washington, D. C., 1954.

Another report, by Joseph K. Balogh, of televiewing among high school boys, gives results somewhat similar to those obtained in the Northwestern University studies.⁴ In Balogh's study, a sharper decrease in televiewing was found among high school students; the average sophomore spent twice as much time with TV as did the average senior. It is reported also by Lazarus (quoted by Balogh) that after the advent of TV a serious reduction in "creative activities" has taken place; e.g., playing musical instruments, singing, acting, writing, photographing, etc.⁵ We have indicated that this finding while holding in some studies is not corroborated by others, as is apparent in the Battin investigation cited above. In one of our recent studies, there appears also to be a marked reduction in movie attendance outside the home, in radio listening, and in the reading of comic magazines.⁶ Creative activity may have decreased somewhat, too, according to the statements of some parents and teachers. But opinions and statements differ on this topic as they do on the relationship of televiewing to studying.

A recent British study of TV, sponsored by the Nuffield Foundation, reports data for 4,500 English children of ages 10 to 14. According to *Time*, December 29, 1958, this study disclosed that "Even heavy viewing does not necessarily make children more aggressive or listless, or discourage them from reading or studying."

⁴Joseph K. Balogh, "Television-Viewing Habits of High School Boys," *Educational Research Bulletin*, March 11, 1959, Vol. 38, No. 3, pp. 66-71.

⁵Arnold L. Lazarus, "Pupil's TV Habits," *Educational Leadership*, Vol. 13, p. 242, January 1956. Quoted by Joseph K. Balogh, *op. cit.*

⁶The study on which these conclusions are based is part of a cooperative research project on *The Interests of Children and Youth* contracted by the U. S. Office of Education, Health, and Welfare and by Northwestern University.

In the United States, opinions differ on the relationships of televising to emotional problems, undesirable attitudes, and behavior difficulties. In a committee report to the American Medical Association, made in 1955, Dr. Elizabeth Avery stated that "reduction of creative activity and time spent in physical play tends to increase emotional problems among children." In testimonials before the Senate Subcommittee to Investigate Juvenile Delinquency, it was indicated that relationships may exist between televising and juvenile delinquency. It was pointed out that the well-adjusted child may be unaffected by watching crime and violence on TV but the less well-adjusted child may be affected seriously. The opinion was expressed, too, that repeated exposure to crime and violence may blunt children's sensitivity to human suffering. This is most disturbing—particularly since very large numbers of crime movies and Westerns are now appearing.

In our studies, both teachers and parents continue to report behavior and adjustment problems associated with TV, such as fatigue, impoverishment of play, lack of interest in school, increased nervousness, reduction in reading, eyestrain, and mealtime disturbance. In recent reports, however, the problems are not so frequently cited as in the earlier studies. A relatively small percentage of the parents and the teachers mentioned such problems in 1958, 1959, and 1960.

From year to year, the teachers who collaborated in our investigations have studied children who spent extremely large amounts of time televising. Some were problem cases, but others were well-adjusted, successful students. In every case of serious maladjustment, the teachers found other contributing factors such as an unfavorable home environment. But teachers

stressed again and again their feeling that too may crime, horror, and "shock" programs were being presented; and they deplored the character of many movies children saw on TV. Some teachers, as well as the parents, were greatly disturbed that the number of overstimulating programs seems to be on the increase.

The data from our studies lend support to the following statements of W. C. Kvaraceus:

The movie, if it affects delinquency, does so more frequently as an occasion for delinquency rather than as a direct contributing cause. The few children who are sometimes reported in serious difficulty because "they saw how it was done in the movies," were ripe to suggestions made through any medium, or person, or situation. Like comic books, movies are a precipitating rather than a basic cause. . . . Moreover, TV can help or hinder child growth and development. . . . Responsible adults should not fail to exercise reasonable concern over what the younger generation is reading, looking at, or listening to.⁷

TV and School Success

A few studies have been designed to disclose the relationship between the amount of televising and attainment in specific school subjects. For example, in San Leandro, California, sixth and seventh grade pupils who televised the most, 22¾ to 69½ hours a week, were compared with those who televised very little, 0 to 9¾ hours a week. Some differences favoring those who televised very little appeared in arithmetic and reading, while little difference was found in the language and spelling attainment of the two groups.⁸

In our studies, excessive viewing of television seems to be associated with somewhat lower academic attainment. In an early investigation the average time de-

⁷W. C. Kvaraceus, *The Community and the Delinquent*, World Book Company, Yonkers, N. Y., 1954, pp. 356-358.

⁸Lloyd F. Scott, "Television and School Achievement," *Phi Delta Kappan*, Vol. 38, pp. 25-28, October 1956.

voted to TV by pupils in the upper fourth on standardized educational tests was 21 hours per week while the average lower fourth was about 26 hours. Similar results were obtained again in 1957, and again in 1959 by Paul Kinsella in his Ph.D. dissertation study (now in progress). We should point out, however, that some pupils were led to do better work in school because of interests awakened by TV. Moreover, in the case of an association of TV with poor academic attainment, other undesirable factors, in addition to excessive televiewing were found.

A recent study by H. F. Paterson, Jr., also yielded somewhat similar results. This writer studied the out-of-school activities of middle grade pupils and concluded:

No significant differences in participation in out-of-school activities by high and low ability pupils (upper quarter; lower quarter) were noted in the areas of television, reading, and studying, creative arts, outdoor play, religious activities, or outside activities.

Significant differences in participation in out-of-school activities by high achievers (upper quarter of grade) and low achievers (lower quarter of grade) in favor of high achievers were noted in the areas of reading and studying, indoor play, and club activities.⁹

Several other investigators have reported little relationship between televiewing and the marks pupils receive in school. For example, Donald G. Tarbet concluded from a study of televiewing habits of 1500 sixth graders within a twelve mile radius of Chapel Hill:

It appears that an average of 20 hours of viewing of TV per week is not detrimental to pleasure reading or to academic grades. Of course, sectional differences may have affected these results. With proper training in the schools, harmful effects of TV can be diminished or overcome.¹⁰

⁹H. F. Paterson, Jr., *The Relationship of Children's Out-of-School Activities to their School Progress and Adjustment*, Publication No. 22, p. 124, Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 17, No. 12, University Microfilms, Ann Arbor, Mich., December 1957.

¹⁰Donald G. Tarbet, "The Televiewing Habits of Pupils," *The Clearing House*, April 1956, pp. 486-487.

Another study, carried on in California, provides relevant data. In May and June, 1958, fifth and sixth grade pupils were divided into heavy viewers (3 or more hours daily) and light viewers (one hour or less daily). Comparisons were made, too, of the pupils in the first four grades who according to their parents spent more time televiewing than playing.

The following conclusions were drawn: "On the basis of data at hand, we cannot say that heavy television viewing, at any stage of elementary school, significantly lowers school grades. What slight difference there was in grades was overall in favor of the heavy viewers."¹¹

Moreover, it is stated that the television "addicts" in the first four grades:

... did not stand out markedly from their age groups. The records we had on them gave no special sign of psychological problems. Their school marks for social attitudes were only a little below their grade means, and their marks for work study habits were actually a little above the mean. There was no indication that they were handicapped in any physical way that might have made them less anxious to play with other children.¹²

TV and Reading

It has often been claimed that children are now reading less because their time is monopolized by TV. Let us examine the results of investigations.

In a study made in Michigan, the investigator found that 31 per cent of the boys and 32 per cent of the girls in his study indicated that TV has not altered their reading habits. Moreover, 81 per cent of the pupils in grades 7 to 12 said that TV has not interfered with homework.¹³

¹¹Institute for Communication Research, *The San Francisco Study of Children and Mass Communication*, Preliminary Report No. 2, "Television," Stanford University, Palo Alto, Calif., 1959.

¹²*The San Francisco Study of Children and Mass Communication*, Op. cit., p. 7.

¹³T. C. Battin, op. cit., p. 12.

Parents and teachers included in our surveys continue to set forth their conviction that many children read less than they did before TV. However, the number of these complaints has decreased. Our recent studies show too that relatively few pupils now believe that TV has influenced their reading adversely. Many point out that televiewing has led to an increase in reading. In fact, in 1958, 45 per cent of the elementary school pupils believed that they have come to read *more* now; 29 per cent, *less*; and 26 per cent, the *same* amount. In 1959 it became clear that the average amount of reading may have increased a little since the advent of TV. But it is well to remember that reading is less popular than TV and radio and consumes much less of the child's time.

Other writers state that the quality of children's reading has improved and some emphasize the increase in amount of reading. For example, Arnold L. Lazarus writes: "Whether because of TV or in spite of it, youngsters (both elementary and secondary) are reading more than ever, according to unanimous reports of librarians (school and public)."¹⁴ Despite a probable small gain in the amount of reading among children, the picture is by no means a bright one since many children do not read widely. And there are some pupils who read less—the latter are regarded as a real problem by their parents and teachers. In addition, there are far too many "retarded readers" in our schools.

TV and Help in School Work

Our own studies suggest that vocabularies are extended somewhat by TV. The teachers have made lists of words children learn from TV. They have pointed out that the definitions and pronunciations may be

right or wrong, depending to a considerable degree upon the way the words are presented on TV.

Many children stated that TV helped them in their school work. Some reported that they were learning from TV much about science, current events, and the land and culture of other peoples. Others indicated that they have found increased satisfaction in reading. Among the high school pupils, the influence of TV was mentioned as valuable in providing historical information and facts related to social studies, civics, and current events; they cited too the value of presentations associated with good plays or books. Such values, it has often been pointed out, might be increased by the provision of more programs in the fields of biography and other types of literature, history, travel, science, and the arts. These are areas cited by some pupils as ones in which they would like to see programs added.

Teacher and Parent Attitude toward TV

Increasingly parents are concerned about children's excessive viewing of Westerns and frequent exposure to crime presentations.

Studies of TV yield some support for this concern. Thus, one writer believes that:¹⁵

Seeing constant brutality, viciousness, and un-social acts results in hardness, intense selfishness, even in mercilessness, proportionate to the amount of exposure and its play on the native temperament of the child. . .

The subtle but persistent effects of horror programs are also stressed.

There is a natural tendency of the child's mind to continue turning over throughout the night what he has seen or heard before going to sleep. There is a deepening of impressions the next day by retelling and re-enacting these

¹⁴Arnold L. Lazarus, "Pupils' TV Habits," *Educational Leadership*, Vol. 13, pp. 241-242, January 1956.

¹⁵E. Poldosky, "Horror," *California Parent-Teacher Journal*, December 1952. Cited by Elizabeth B. Hurlock in *Child Development*, 3d ed., McGraw-Hill, New York: 1956, pp. 358-359.

things during playtime. There is a potent tendency in children to vicarious participation in plots seen and heard, so that, in recollection or dreams, the child substitutes himself and family for the victim or victims, thus intensifying unwholesome emotional reactions. . .

Interest in the effects of TV is not limited to the U. S. as the following report from London shows:

. . . The Council for Children's Welfare . . . a voluntary body which has already campaigned against the horror comic asked 700 viewers to watch programmes with their children for three weeks.

Nearly all complained of brutality, gum-chewing sadism, and moronic murders . . . many parents levelled the same charge against cowboys, thugs and American killers who dominated the screen with drear regularity between 6 p.m. and 8:30. . . Indeed fully half the mothers grimly noted how their young ones resisted the bedtime if adults were still glued to the television set. . . (Nevertheless) television in general had "increased vocabulary," "widened their horizons," or "broadened reading taste." . . .¹⁶

Concluding Statement

Despite the limitations of TV, it has many desirable features and potentialities. The antidote to its undesirable aspects lies in a constructive program of guidance for children and young people. Teachers and parents should examine each child's TV preferences, and they should ascertain the amount of time each child gives to other leisure pursuits. If too much time appears to be devoted to TV, other activities should be encouraged to insure balanced and individually suitable patterns. Let us remember that TV is a problem mainly in homes where parents allow it to become and remain a problem. It may also prove to be a liability in schools in which it receives little or no attention or guidance. It is true that some programs are mediocre or worse, but there are some genuinely informative offerings and occasionally a

truly inspiring or beautiful presentation. There are surely unrealized possibilities for stimulating appreciation and for fostering worthwhile interest through a judicious use, direction, and improvement of TV.

Parents and teachers alike have an opportunity to encourage the development of better TV programs and to help in curbing the present overwhelming tendency of producers to surfeit children and adults with Western and crime presentations. Edgar Dale points out that "some producers . . . have the curious belief that if no proof of harm can be offered, the content under discussion is suitable. Harm, however, has varied disguises. A culture can be drowned in a sea of triviality. A society can prolong into adulthood the film and TV classification of men as either discernibly 'good' or 'bad.'"¹⁷ And we might add, children can gradually come to accept violence, hate, and destruction as almost normal ways of life. Their sensitivity to human suffering may gradually become blunted by frequent exposure to anti-social behavior. It is the responsibility then of citizens to seek an improvement in current offerings via TV. But they have the responsibility also to make the most of the present offerings.^{18,19} Parents and teachers can aid too by encouraging children to select programs with discrimination and to evaluate them with discernment. By judicious efforts to lead children to utilize wisely interests awakened by TV, additional benefits may be realized from this great medium of entertainment and enlightenment.

¹⁶Edgar Dale, *The News Letter*, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio. Vol. 11, No. 8, May 1956.

¹⁷Paul Witty, *Children and the Mass Media*. Washington: White House Conference Report on Children and Youth, 1960.

¹⁸Paul Witty and Associates, *A Study of the Interests of Children and Youth*. Northwestern University and the Office of Education. Washington: U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1960.

¹⁹"'Television Vigilantes' Campaign Goes On," *The Times Educational Supplement*, July 4, 1958, p. 112.

Freedom to Research

The Problem of Securing Willing Cooperation

A common and persistent difficulty in conducting research is the failure to secure the willing cooperation of those who may be affected. Research efforts in a school directly or indirectly affect: students acting as controls and students in the experiment; other students and teachers in the school system; administrative personnel, including the school board; and parents of children concerned. Under certain conditions research may affect the whole school community.

It would be possible to compile a long list of research studies that have failed because of interference of one sort or another. Such interference has ranged from direct attack in the public press to the sabotage created by parents who say, "That isn't the way they did things when I was in school," and by the teacher who says, "This may be all right, but I like my way better."

The common attribute of such research failures is a lack of understanding of the general purpose of educational research and the particular purpose of the specific study.

Educational research is far more vulnerable to interference than is other research. Because education directly affects all, and because everyone has been educated to some degree, each person feels that he understands the process. Every adult feels reasonably certain about the kind and amount of schooling that is best

suited to the young. Most adults view what goes on in the schools from the background of both an intellectual and an emotional association.

Experimental research in a school focuses attention upon the school. Such attention may be and generally is beneficial, but it can equally well be harmful if the research effort is little understood or is subject to misinterpretation.

The purpose of this article is to detail the steps and precautions that should be taken to insure understanding of the purpose of research in the school. Its primary thesis is that when all the persons who may be concerned, however indirectly, are properly informed, the research effort can go on unhindered. The discussion will be centered around the groups who may be affected. Since it is quite possible that broader participation in a research study may result if the recommendations are followed, ways of utilizing and encouraging this broader participation will be discussed.

The Students

Students, both those in the experimental group and those in the control group, are directly concerned in any research study. Those subject to the new method are, of course, vitally interested. Those who are used as controls, whether or not they are informed of the experiment being conducted, are aware that something is happening. The situation is indeed rare when a control group can be truly unaffected by a research study. How much this fact has led to faulty conclusions is open to conjecture. Certainly in many studies, the difference between experimental and control groups has been suspiciously low or

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suspiciously high. It is quite possible that those in control groups, knowing something was happening, have worked harder than normally. It is equally possible that the knowledge of an experimental method being tried has engendered a "don't care" attitude. In either case, the behavior is atypical. Since secrecy is practically impossible in a modern school, the policy of complete frankness is suggested. While frankness has its disadvantages, the primary one being that the research effort becomes a common topic, with the concomitant behavior changes, still, it is a better alternative than a doomed attempt to maintain secrecy.

Experimental procedures, together with the rationale behind the procedure, should be carefully and completely explained to all the students who are to participate either as subjects or as controls. The understanding level of the students should be carefully appraised and the explanation geared to this level. The effort to explain in understandable terms quite often pays dividends because it enables the experimenters to comprehend certain facets of the problem more completely.

Accompanying the explanation of the research problem itself should be an explanation of the purposes of all educational research. The primary purpose, simply explained, is to discover truth concerning the ways people learn. Such an explanation, given fully and frankly, makes possible full and complete motivation both for the experimental subject and the control. The subjects then become true participants, as interested in the study and its results and future implications, as is the experimenter himself. At the same time, the students must be cautioned that the research can be valid only when each student acts as normally as possible. That this "normalcy"

can never be 100% assured is recognized in all studies.

The students in the control groups, understandably, feel somewhat left out of a research study. Consequently, it is much easier to secure full cooperation when an experimental design allows for switching the groups at a given point. Such a design may also be preferred because it may hold constant a greater number of variables. Usually such a design involves using the experimental method with one group for a selected time interval and with the other group for an equal interval. It involves an extra measurement at the time of the switch. Conclusions, then, are based on the gains made by each group under the alternate teaching procedures.

The basic suggestion of this section is that all students participating, either as subjects or as controls, be thoroughly informed of the purpose of educational research in general and the specific study in particular; that this explanation be developed in terms completely comprehensible to the students, and that whenever possible an experimental design be adopted which allows for using the new procedures with both groups consecutively. It is very probable that such an explanation and a widespread participation will result in more valid research.

The Teachers

Teachers are likely to be ambivalent towards research. On the one hand, they recognize the value to the profession of research findings; on the other hand, they sometimes infer in any attempt to try out new patterns an implied criticism of their efforts. At best these feelings result in a sense of insecurity concerning research. Some teachers tend to become over-anxious in their efforts to do their best for a

study; others, consciously or subconsciously, tend to hold back in their efforts.

The policy of secrecy is generally even less effective with teachers than with the students. Even the calm reassurance to the teacher of a control group that she is to go on doing what she has been doing is worse than useless because she may take this to mean that she is not good enough to try the new method and that the final results will show how poorly she has been teaching. Reassurance must take the form of a careful explanation of the purpose of research. This is even more important to the control teacher than to the experimental teacher. It may help to plan the control method as carefully as the experimental so that teachers are really inspired by both ideas.

Generally, a research study is strengthened by widespread teacher participation as early in the study as possible. The planning stage should not be completed before the total group has been consulted. The time spent by the leader in marshalling his explanation for such a review is time well spent. In the first place, the necessity for preparing such an explanation to a possibly hostile group forces the investigator to state his proposal as clearly and logically as possible. Such thinking is important. In the second place, the discussion which follows the explanation may benefit the proposal through resulting changes in procedure or design that stem from suggestions made by teachers from their years of experience in the area. A possible third advantage accrues to the benefit of education directly in that the time spent discussing teaching and research may develop understanding of the teaching process. The major benefit, however, is that every teacher becomes a knowledgeable participant in the study. Ideally, each teacher should be a willing participant, with all

fears and suspicions allayed. While this ideal is not often realized in the face of strong convictions, striving for it should insure a workable minimum of reasonably objective participation on a "let's try it and see" basis. Unless such minimum cooperation is assured, sober second thought concerning the wisdom of attempting the study is indicated.

The general recommendation is that the teachers concerned, both experimental and control, be thoroughly informed, *at the planning stage*, of the purpose and methods to be employed in the proposed study; that when possible the advice and recommendations of the teachers be incorporated in the planning; and that willing and objective cooperation be sought. If such an attempt results in failure to secure cooperation the question of conducting the study should be reconsidered.

Administrators and Teachers Outside the Research

The chief administrator of a school is almost always informed, as a matter of course, of a research study under contemplation. Usually his permission has to be secured. Others on the administration staff are often equally concerned but are not always automatically informed. These include the superintendent's assistants, the supervisory staff, and certainly the school board. At times the first news a school board, and sometimes the superintendent, hears of a research study is from a reporter with a severely critical bias evident in his questions. If, in such a situation, the person questioned has to begin the process of inquiry, little can be salvaged. The reporter is free to castigate because the person who should know doesn't.

Equally harmful to the cause of research, although not intentionally so, may be the criticisms of teachers in the same school or

school system who are not concerned with the study but who hear about it indirectly. Under these conditions and lacking information, they may make comments that can be extremely harsh but which are listened to by laymen because they emanate from teachers.

Since secrecy as a policy is as impossible for the administrative staff and teaching staff as it is for the students and their parents, the policy of complete frankness should be followed. Before a study is undertaken, all members of the administrative staff, including the board of education, should be informed. The superintendent is usually empowered to grant permission for research studies, but it is incumbent upon both him and the researcher to make certain that the board is informed of the nature and anticipated effects of the study, since questions from the public will undoubtedly come to them. The rest of the administrative staff, particularly the supervisors responsible for the area, should be brought into the study as early as possible. It is usually helpful to have them aid in the planning, particularly in describing and prescribing the control method.

The teachers in the school system who are not participating should be informed of the study in as simple and direct a way as possible. If there is a regular news disseminating service, either a school system newsletter or system of bulletins, a factual report of the study is a legitimate news story for this service. If the school system supports no such regular service, then a similar report should be duplicated and made available to every teacher through some other means.

The basic policy is one of providing information. The administrative staff of the school system must be informed, because it is its business and responsibility to know everything that happens in a school. The

teacher not directly concerned with a study should be informed as a matter of professional courtesy. The researcher has the responsibility of providing this information in as direct and simple a way as he can devise.

The Community

The community that supports a school system does so not only because such support is obligatory but because it feels a very real concern and interest in education. The community is more than the parents of the school children, it is all the people who reside, work, and take pride in their community. The entire community has a vested interest in education. They support it and they are either proud of the local school system or defensive about it, depending upon how it meets their idea of proper education. It is important, then, that the community be informed directly and correctly of things that are happening. Informed they will be. When the researcher does the informing, the information is correct. When the informing is done by rumor, the information is apt to be misleading or scurrilous.

The newspaper is the researcher's best means of reaching the community. An accurate statement of the study, as brief as possible, can be an object of pride to a community. The fact that the school is engaged in research seeking to make itself better is something for the community to be proud of. The recommendation is that the researcher enlist early the columns of the local newspaper for a brief but complete and accurate description of the research study. Newspaper editors are generally interested in the schools of their community and will ordinarily cooperate willingly.

The basic tenet of this article has been

(Continued on page 121)

Sequence and Grade Placement of Capitalization Skills

The present paper is one of a series of reports on an extensive study of sequence and grade placement of capitalization and punctuation skills in the intermediate grades of the elementary school. The present paper summarizes the empirical findings in the capitalization phase of the study. The criterion for this study was: for a specific skill to be considered suitable to a designated grade, it was necessary for the total grade level to achieve a proficiency score of fifty per cent on two of the four test items used to measure each skill, but less than seventy-five per cent on three of the four test items.

The study was designed to furnish data that could be utilized in dealing with two major problems. (1) An effort was made to determine the grade level that was required to attain the criterion set for the study. (2) An effort was made to determine the mental age within the grade level that was necessary for the attainment of the criterion. This procedure was followed for each of the thirty-seven capitalization skills that were measured in the study. It is held that the establishment of the mental-age levels within the grades for each specific capitalization skill has resulted in a new classification that allows for the development of language skills independent of age or grade.

I. NEED FOR DIAGNOSTIC INFORMATION

II. MATERIALS AND METHODS

The Odom Diagnostic Test of Capitalization and Punctuation Skills was adminis-

tered by the researcher to 1818 intermediate grade pupils in a large city school system in California. Nineteen schools were selected in accordance with the requirement of proportionate stratification. One fourth-, one fifth-, and one sixth-grade class from each of the schools were assigned to the study. All pupils in each class were included in the study.

The test was divided into three sections: all of the pupils were tested on third-, fourth-, and fifth-grade skills, fifth-grade pupils were tested on sixth-grade skills, also; and sixth-grade pupils were tested on sixth-grade skills and an advanced-level group of skills. Each capitalization skill was measured by four test items that were systematically dispersed throughout the tests. The pupils inserted the correct capitalization where it was needed in the test material.

In order to maintain precision and objectivity in the hand scoring of the tests, it was necessary to devise an excess-error fraction. The excess-error fraction was used to account for the incorrect usage of capitalization where none was needed. Each pupil's performance was reported as specific skill scores. These scores were tabulated by grade levels. Through the use of the Western Data Processing Center's facilities, information was provided that enabled the researcher to identify the grade levels that attained the criterion and the mental-age range that was necessary for the grade level to attain the criterion. The identifications were made for each specific capitalization skill.

Dr. Odom is a professor at the Los Angeles State College of Applied Arts and Sciences.

III. RESULTS: EMPIRICAL SEQUENCE AND GRADE PLACEMENT OF THE CAPITALIZATION SKILLS

Because of the large amount of data that was presented in the original tables of the study, it is necessary to delimit the data. A special summary table is presented in this paper that allows for such a delimitation without a sacrifice of information. The original tables contained: (1) cumulative percentages for each of the four test items and were reported as mental-age achievement within each grade level; (2) cumulative percentages for each of the four test items and were reported as total grade-level achievement; and (3) the mean item achievement reported by grade level. This procedure for the presentation of the data was followed for each of the capitalization skills.

The special summary table contains: (1) the grade level that attained the criterion for the study; (2) the grade-level designations in the California State Series—language texts; (3) the mean item achievement for the lowest grade level that attained the criterion; and (4) the mental-age range that was identified in the study as necessary for the attainment of the criterion. The mental-range is entitled Language-age Range in the special summary table, as it was in the original study.

Analysis of the data presented in the special summary table revealed a discrepancy in the achievement for the capital letter used at the beginning of a sentence. Two of these test items were concealed in content material that required the pupil to recognize the end of one sentence and the beginning of the next. Since some authorities regard this device as one of punctuation, its significance to this study should not be stressed.

Comparison of the empirical grade placement in the special summary table with the

California language text designation revealed that the criterion is attained for: ten of the capitalization skills before the presently designated grade, nine of the skills at the designated grade level, and eighteen of the skills at a later grade level. This is the major purpose of diagnostic testing, that is, the identification of the achievements of the pupils with regard to the specific skills and their level of utilization. It is the opinion of the researcher that this information is unknown to the teachers; consequently, they fail to provide needed practice on the skills that some of the pupils have not acquired, while giving practice on those skills which the pupils have already mastered. Some of these skills are mastered before they have been developed by the teachers. It might be hypothesized that the pupils develop this mastery through induction or generalization. How the skills are mastered is not relevant to this paper. The fact that mastery of untaught skills has been identified is important. Teachers will assume that if a skill has not been developed that the pupils need practice on this skill. This is a major deterrent to our present language instruction program. Unless teachers have some means by which they can identify the abilities of pupils to utilize the skills, adequate practice will not be given to deficient skills and will be wasted on mastered skills.

IV. SUGGESTIONS FROM THE STUDY REGARDING THE IDENTIFICATION AND TEACHING OF CAPITALIZATION SKILLS

On the basis of the findings of this study, the following suggestions are made:

- 1) An instrument that will diagnose the abilities of pupils to utilize specific capitalization skills must be developed. This instrument must provide the necessary information, but, more important, it must

be simple to administer and easy to score.

2) Practice must be given to those skills that indicate a low achievement level in pupils' usage, and practice should not be given to skills unless such weaknesses have been identified.

3) Practice should be given to each pupil according to his need, and he should be allowed to progress at his individual rate of development. A pupil should not be restrained by the abilities of the group as a whole, nor by the instructional materials.

4) An experimental study of a variety of teaching techniques, a variety of instructional language materials, and controlled practice periods is necessary before a definite recommendation can be made on the sequence and grade placement of capitalization instruction. Until such time as the experimental study is carried out, teachers will have relatively little confidence in the

effectiveness of their teaching in this area of the language program in the elementary school.

The empirical sequence and grade placement that was presented in the special summary table is indicative of the findings of the study relative to the variety of conditions that exist in the language program of the school district that participated in this study. In view of the facts that fifty-seven teachers with expected variations in teaching techniques participated in the study, that the pupils included in the sample were representative of intermediate-grade pupils as validated by comparison with the national mental-age norms for such pupils, and that the language texts used in the intermediate grades of the California elementary schools are, also, used widely throughout the country, the results of this study may prove beneficial to a large number of school districts.

SPECIAL SUMMARY TABLE

Empir. G.P.	State G.P.	Capitalization Skills	*Grade Item-mean	Language-age Range
3	3	First Word in the Greeting of a Letter	2.63 (4B)	5-2—9-5
4	3	The Word "I" Referring to the Individual	2.40 (4B)	5-2—9-5
4	3	Names of Cities	2.17 (4B)	8-0—10-5
4	4	Names of Countries	2.28 (4B)	8-0—10-5
4	3	Names of States	2.17 (4B)	8-0—10-5
4	3	Names of Days of the Week	2.18 (4B)	8-6—11-11
4	3	Names of Months of the Year	2.14 (4B)	8-6—11-11
4	4	Names of People of a Particular Country	1.83 (4B)	8-6—11-11
4	3	Names of Individuals	1.79 (4B)	8-6—11-11
4	3	Abbreviations of Names of Days and Months	1.90 (4B)	9-0—11-11
4	3	First Word in Each Line of Poetry	1.92 (4B)	5-2—Max.
4	3	Title Preceding a Person's Name	1.75 (4B)	9-0—11-11
4	5	Names of Monuments	1.79 (4A)	9-6—Max.
4	5	Names of Indian Tribes	1.64 (4A)	10-0—Max.
4	5	Names of Mountains, Rivers, and Ships	1.64 (4A)	10-0—Max.
4	3	Names of Streets	1.67 (4A)	10-0—Max.
4	4	First Word and Important Words in Titles	1.64 (4A)	10-0—Max.
5	5	Names of Businesses and Services	1.82 (5B)	9-6—12-11
5	6	Names of Specific Trains, Ships, and Planes	2.25 (5B)	10-0—Max.
5	6	Adjectives Derived from Proper Nouns	2.09 (5B)	10-0—Max.
5	3	First Word of a Sentence	1.79 (5B)	10-6—Max.
5	3	Initials	1.81 (5B)	10-6—Max.
5	3	Names of Geographical Places	1.73 (5B)	10-6—Max.
5	6	Names of Departments of Government	1.55 (5B)	10-6—Max.

SPECIAL SUMMARY TABLE (continued)

5	5	Names of Organizations and Clubs	1.84 (5A)	10-6—Max.
5	3	Names of Public Buildings	1.67 (5A)	10-6—Max.
5	3	First Word in the Closing of a Letter	1.59 (5A)	10-6—Max.
5	3	Names of Holidays and Special Days	1.64 (5A)	10-6—Max.
6	7	"Box" and "Rural Route" in Addresses	2.15 (6B)	11-0—14-6
6	7	Names of Newspapers	1.99 (6B)	11-0—14-6
6	4	Each Topic in an Outline	2.03 (6B)	11-0—Max.
6	6	Names of Important Documents	1.84 (6B)	11-0—Max.
6	7	Names of Planets	1.71 (6A)	12-0—Max.
7	6	Names of Historical Events	1.40 (6A)	12-6—Max.
7	7	Titles of Sacred Books and the Deity	1.26 (6A)	13-0—Max.
7	4	"Mother" and "Father" Used in Place of Name	.29 (6A)	Above Max.
7	7	Personified Nouns	.13 (6A)	Above Max.

*Grade Item-mean is the mean item achievement of the lowest grade level that attained the criterion for the specific skill.

Max.=The maximum mental age for this study was 19-0.

FREEDOM TO RESEARCH

(Continued from page 117)

that full disclosure of research studies should be made to all who conceivably would be interested or affected by a study. Experience indicates that secrecy is all but impossible. A policy of providing clear and complete information is the researcher's guard against critical and interfering gossip

arising from misleading and partial disclosures. The researcher is urged to take definite steps to inform all students, all teachers, all administrators, all parents, and others in the community, of the purpose and nature of the study he is undertaking. Fulfilling this responsibility not only guards his freedom to research but can be expected to strengthen his study.

The United States Treasury Department of Internal Revenue has ruled that gifts and bequests to the Research Foundation of the National Council of Teachers of English will be considered tax exempt insofar as federal income taxes are concerned.

Idea Inventory

Some time spent in teaching composition should be given to analyzing our most famous state paper, the Declaration of Independence, and the background of its author, Thomas Jefferson. It divides into two parts: the introduction is philosophical, setting forth what Jefferson called "self-evident" truths. The development is practical, stating concrete facts in balanced sentences. To avoid any confusion in the minds of his readers, Jefferson has eighteen sentences beginning with the simple subject: "He," referring to the British King. Although the subject is simple, the predicates are a little difficult. For this reason, the simple subject "He" plus the verbs can be taken out of their context. He has refused. He has forbidden. He has called. He has dissolved. He has endeavored. He has obstructed. He has made. He has kept. He has combined. He has abdicated. He has plundered. He is transporting. He has constrained. Then ask the question: What has the King done according to these verbs. One sentence will recall many Indian tales familiar to readers

of frontier stories. "He has excited domestic insurrections amongst us, and has endeavored to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers the merciless savages."

After these specific charges against the

King, Jefferson defines George III as a tyrant unfit to be the ruler of a free people. Then Jefferson turns to the British people. Again he begins with a simple subject: "We." We have warned them. We have reminded them. We have appealed to their native justice. He then concludes by declaring that these United Colonies are and of right ought to be, free and independent states. His concluding sentence is a good study in prepositional phrases. "And for the support of this declaration, with a firm reliance on the

protection of the divine providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor." This, too, can be an exercise in a transitive verb with its direct objects: our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor.

Why was Thomas Jefferson selected to write this document? According to Profes-



Louise H. Mortensen, Des Moines, Iowa

sor Bliss Perry of Harvard in his book *The American Spirit in Literature* (Yale) it was because he had written in the summer of 1774 *A Summary View of the Rights of British America*, which had been published in England by Edmund Burke, who was a judge of good writing and sound politics. Jefferson had also prepared in 1775 the *Address of the Virginia House of Burgesses*. For these reasons he was placed at the head of the Committee in the Continental Congress for drafting the Declaration of Independence. The Committee of Five reported it to the Congress, which cut out about one-fourth of what Jefferson had written to his dismay.

Often in accepting papers in an English class, a teacher suspects that pupils have copied too much of the material. It is interesting to note that forty-seven years after 1776, in the year 1823, John Adams and Thomas Pickering charged Jefferson with lack of originality in composing the Declaration. His reply was: "Whether I gathered my ideas from reading or reflection I do not know. I know only that I turned neither to book nor pamphlet while writing it. I did not consider it as any part of my charge to invent new ideas altogether and to offer no sentiment which had ever been expressed before."

In other words, he was only a spokesman for the opinions of his countrymen. But he, too, held those opinions, and although Pickering called it a "commonplace compilation, its sentiments hackneyed in Congress for two years before," Jefferson's thinking and reading, plus his own strong feeling for independence, are behind the words.

Young boys can be taught that the writer was a gifted boy considered the best shot and best rider in his county in Virginia, who went to William and Mary College in Williamsburg and studied hard over Greek, Latin, French, Italian, and Spanish. He

associated with the best thinkers in the little colonial capital which we may visit today in its restoration. It was this background which made Thomas Jefferson the writer he became. He corresponded with numerous people, and his writings now fill twenty volumes. He loved books so much that his private library was one of the best in the young Republic. Although some educated people of his time feared the "rough-neck" type of common people, Jefferson said, "I am not one of those who fear the people." A Jeffersonian principle was that leaders must lead in the right direction and should be above suspicion. He loved words and the meaning behind words. Bliss Perry says, "He was far happier talking about Greek and Anglo-Saxon with Daniel Webster before the fireplace of Monticello than he ever was in the presidential chair." "His belief in the inarticulate common people is rewarded by their obstinate fidelity to his name as a type and symbol."

Although the people may have been "inarticulate" in Jefferson's day, they should not be inarticulate today. Young people coming on must be taught to write in a clear style, and the introduction, development, and conclusion of the Declaration of 1776 may be used as a model.

A returned missionary from the Congo said in the summer of 1960: "I watched Congolese, carrying satchels, walk into banks and public buildings to pick up their independence. The Congolese cannot understand what independence is. It is a magic word to them. They believe everything is free and there is no work." This could be used as a lesson in abstract nouns vs. concrete nouns. Children, like primitive childlike people, may not understand the abstract.

Thomas Jefferson and His World is a new book in the beautiful American Heritage Junior Library. Also new is *The First Book*

of the *Declaration of Independence* (Watts). *The Great Declaration* by Henry Steele Commager (Bobbs, 1958) is by a distinguished historian. *Thomas Jefferson, Champion of the People* by Clara I. Judson (Follett) is for junior high age, as are *Thomas Jefferson* by Genevieve Lisitzky (Viking) and *Thomas Jefferson, Father of Democracy* by Vincent Sheehan (Random). *July 4, 1776: The Dramatic Story of the First Four Days of July 1776* by Donald Barr Chidsey (Crown 1958) is recommended as a *must* for young adults. English

teachers should all read *The American Spirit in Literature* by Bliss Perry, Volume 34 in "Chronicles of America" series found in most libraries.

A Copenhagen paper printed the Declaration of Independence in Danish as front page news in September 1776. A reprint in original size of this front page is available, free of charge. Write for a copy to Berlingske Tidende, 50 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, N.Y. The paper is still Denmark's biggest morning newspaper.

BIG BAD BABY

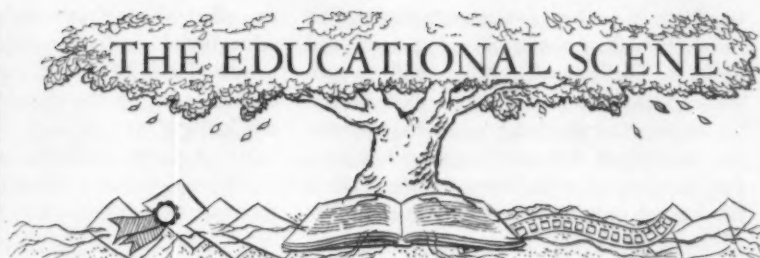
Father is the biggest baby in the house. He leaves the tap open. He can't put out the lights. We all bathe in cold water, but he needs hot water. He puts the oil bottle on the ground. Sometimes he goes to sleep before dinner. Sometimes he does not drink his milk. He spills his oats on his nice sharkskin shirt. Father can't even find the sweets. Mother hides the sweets. I can find it in one second. I love this baby.

By P. T. Gopal, Bangalore,
age six.

Taken by permission from
Swing, Writings by Children,
222 East 21st St., New York
10, N. Y.



William A. Jenkins¹



Ten Major Educational Events of 1960

1. Four Negro girls, bound for first grade, entered two New Orleans schools hitherto reserved for whites. During the year, a Negro pupil peacefully entered a white school in Houston, Texas. Peaceful also was token integration in Richmond, Va. All told, 14 Southern school districts desegregated for the first time in 1960. The number of Negroes attending schools with whites stood at about six per cent of the total Negroes enrolled in Southern public schools. Prince Edward County, Va., began its second year without public schools to avoid integrating. States with segregation intact numbered four: Alabama, Georgia, Mississippi, and South Carolina.

2. Schoolmen completed plans for launching the Midwest Program on Airborne Television Instruction, the nation's first mass experiment with educational television. Throughout the year, hundreds of teachers, administrators, and college professors worked to map out, produce, and record courses of study which will be broadcast from a flying aircraft over six midwestern states beginning January 30, 1961.

3. Seven thousand delegates assembled in Washington for the 1960 White House

Conference on Children and Youth. Delegates met from March 27 to April 2, reviewed every imaginable facet of child-life and youth problem, and passed 1,600 resolutions deploring, condemning, praising, urging, recommending, and exhorting. There were more resolutions on education than on any other single topic.

4. Both Houses of Congress passed a federal aid to education measure. The noteworthy event was the approval by the House of Representatives, for the first time in history, of a measure authorizing grants to states for school construction. This happened in May. Prior to this, the Senate had passed a bill providing for both school construction and teacher salary aid. But the two bills were strikingly different and only a conference between the House and Senate could bring about a compromise. Before the steps necessary for a conference could be taken (the House Rules Committee was one obstacle), Congress adjourned and the two measures went to their separate deaths.

5. "Project Talent" completed the first national census of aptitudes and talents among high school students. The census was based on a huge sampling of 500,000 students, who provided close to a billion items of information about their aptitudes, abilities, and background characteristics.

6. The U. S. office of Education allocated \$8.4 million for research to improve

¹Dr. Jenkins is Professor of Elementary Education at the University of Wisconsin—Milwaukee.

teaching of modern foreign languages. The research will involve 83 languages and dialects. The money will be used to produce grammars, readers, and dictionaries; to study African languages; to improve the training of foreign language teachers; and to develop achievement tests. This is the largest program of its type ever undertaken in the United States. It caps a year in which American educators have given high priority and increased money and effort to the teaching of foreign languages in elementary schools, high schools, and colleges. Noticeable omission is support for the teaching of English.

7. Candidates Kennedy and Nixon debated questions of national policy, including federal aid to education. The television debates were adjudged by many an important venture into mass adult education. In addition, thousands of teachers utilized the debates in their classroom work. Both during the TV debates and in other campaigning efforts, the two candidates stated their position on questions of education. Mr. Kennedy promised to do more for education than did Mr. Nixon.

8. President Eisenhower proposed United Nations aid for education. He made his proposal in the now famous Point Five of his speech before the United Nations General Assembly, September 22. He said: "... I propose all-out United Nations effort to help African countries launch such educational activities as they may wish to undertake The United States is ready to contribute to an expanded program of educational assistance to Africa by the family of United Nations organizations"

9. The National Education Association began a two-year study to discover new directions for the instructional programs of America's elementary and secondary schools. Ever since Sputnik, many groups and individuals have voiced their opinion

on what the schools should teach. The educational profession itself has not yet provided a full-throated reply to either the criticisms or to the demands for "a hard curriculum."

10. A large segment of the textbook publishing industry abandoned traditional patterns of organization to "prepare for the challenges of vastly expanded markets." Two trends emerged. Nearly a dozen textbook publishing companies were affected by mergers or by transfers of stock. Hitherto privately held stock of several publishers was placed on the market. The educational community watched with interest the reorganization in an industry whose products affect every classroom and every student and teacher in the United States.

Some helps for your A-V program

Children's Films, Collection No. 2. Latest brochure lists new accessions, including some from other land. Brandon Films, Inc., 200 West 57th Street, New York 19, N. Y.

Free and Inexpensive Educational Aids. Compilation includes 60 sources of films and 22 film catalogs. Books, slides, and charts are among the hundreds of items listed. Dover Publications, Inc., 180 Varick Street, New York 14, N. Y. 289 pp. \$1.35.

Films and Filmstrips on Audio-Visual Materials and Methods. An annotated list of nearly 200 items from more than 70 sources. Educational Film Library Association, 250 West 57th Street, New York 19, N. Y. 14 pp. \$1. Free to members.

Film Catalog 1960-61. Content classification of feature films and Hollywood-made short subjects, supplemented with suggestions for nonrecreational use of the productions. Films Inc., 1150 Wilmette Avenue, Wilmette, Illinois. 144 pp. Free.

Recommended Phonograph Records for School and Library Use. Free, illustrated

list. Capitol Records Distributing Corp., 253 West 64th Street, New York, N. Y.

Carnival of Books

Here is the schedule of children's books and authors to be discussed by Ruth Harshaw during February. Dates given are for broadcast on WMAQ, Chicago. Check your local station for day and time of broadcast in your area.

February 5—Zachary, the Governor's Pig by Bruce Grant (World).

February 12—Henry Clay: Statesman and Patriot by Regina Kelly (Houghton Mifflin)

February 19—Tales from the Story Hat by Verna Aardema (Coward-McCann)

February 26—Hittite Warrior by Joanne Williamson (Knopf)

Brotherhood Week

Brotherhood Week 1961 will be observed February 19-26. The National Conference of Christians and Jews, sponsors of the observance, list these as the purposes of Brotherhood Week:

1. Rededication to the basic ideals of respect for individuals and peoples.
2. Practical steps which people can take to promote an understanding and realization of these ideals.
3. Enlistment of contributing members in year-round activities to build brotherhood everywhere.

In recognition of Brotherhood Week, schools might wish to undertake some of the projects listed below:

Invite guest speakers representing religion, labor, management, and the professions to discuss democracy's need for better intergroup relations.

Plan choral programs of music and folk songs of religious, racial, and nationality groups.

Present pageants and dramatic readings of episodes in our history when religious freedom and political liberty were established as principles of the American Way.

Plan folk dance programs for physical education classes and for assembly.

Show films and hold forums on the themes of brotherhood and group relations.

Organize a unit of work in intergroup relations in social studies or literature classes and plan an assembly program as the culminating activity of the unit.

Encourage students to write essays, verse, skits, and plays on the brotherhood theme. Provide outlets for these efforts in class programs, the school paper, on radio and TV for assemblies.

Listen to records of great artists of various backgrounds who have contributed to American culture. Enrich with discussion.

Provide opportunities to learn about peoples comprising the nation and the problems they encounter in adjusting to American life.

Arrange a display of posters, pamphlets, and books on intergroup relations for library, homeroom or auditorium.

Exhibit arts and crafts of many people.

Junior Literary Guild

Here are the titles of the selections for February:

For boys and girls 5 and 6 years old:

The Pie Wagon by Lillian Budd. Lothrop, Lee and Shepard, \$2.75.

For boys and girls 7 and 8 years old:

Higgins and the Great Big Scare by Rebecca Caudill. Holt, Rinehart and Winston, \$2.95.

For boys and girls 9, 10, and 11 years old:

Cappy and the River by Lynn Avery. Duell, Sloan and Pearce, \$3.

For girls 12 to 16 years old:

June Finds a Way by Emily Hahn. Franklin Watts, \$2.95.

For boys 12 to 16 years old:

Brother of the Wind by Jerry Wolfert. John Day, \$3.50.



Mabel F. Altstetter

BOOKS for Children

Edited by Mabel F. Altstetter and Muriel Crosby

BIOGRAPHY

CONGO EXPLORER. By Jeanne Carbonnier. Illustrated with photographs and maps. Scribner's Sons, 1960. \$3.00. (10-16)

The second half of the nineteenth century was a time of tremendous exploring and colonizing in Africa. Pierre Savorgnan De-



Brazza, exploring for France, opened up the area to become the French Congo, now the Republic of Congo. This is a timely book which lays a foundation for understanding the forces at work in modern Africa.

C

SOLOMON JUNEAU, VOYAGEUR. By Marion Lawson. Illustrated by Robert Hallock. Crowell, 1960. \$3.50. (12-16)

This is the story of the making of a man, a man who left his native village near Montreal as a run-a-way. Becoming a famous voyageur, a trader, a United States citizen, Juneau was a founder of great cities, Milwaukee, and, later, Juneau, Alaska. Courage, perseverance, leadership, are among the qualities which earned for Juneau the respect and admiration of his fellow citizens.

C

ALL ABOUT GREAT MEDICAL DISCOVERIES. By David Dietz. Illustrated by Ernest Kurt Barth. Random House, 1960. \$1.95. (10-14)

Because the great discoveries of medicine came through the efforts of individuals, such as Pasteur, Lister, Salk, and Fleming, the stories of these discoveries constitute first class biographies. Although working as individuals, each of the great medical discoverers was dependent upon the cooperative efforts of many. In this sense, the story



Muriel Crosby

of medicine and those who practice it is a story of cooperation in a heavily weighted competitive world. C

SOCIAL STUDIES

MAYA: LAND OF THE TURKEY AND THE DEER.

By Victor W. vonHagen. Illustrated by Alberto Beltran. World Publishing Company, 1960. \$2.95. (12-16)

The Mayas were an old civilization long before the Spaniards arrived in Mexico. The history, culture, and extraordinary achievements of the Mayas are dramatically portrayed in this exciting story. Special features of this book are a chronological chart of the Maya world and world events, suggested books for further reading, and an index and glossary. C

THE FIRST COMERS. By Alice Marriott. Illustrated by Harvey Weiss. Longmans, Green, 1960. \$4.50. (11-16)

A first rate "detective story," this portrayal of the early Indians is based upon the work of the archeologist in discovering



the important facts in the life of a people through a study of the artifacts they left behind. What archeology is, preparing for a career in archeology, the opportunities for developing a hobby in archeology, are subjects treated in this comprehensive book. C

SETTLERS ON A STRANGE SHORE. By Edith McCall. Illustrated by Carol Rogers. Children's Press, 1960. \$2.50. (8-12)

Another in the series, *Frontiers of America*, the author describes the efforts of the first settlers who attempted to conquer an

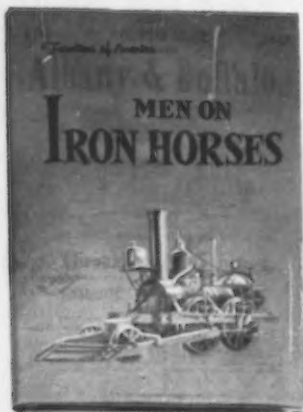


unknown continent. Frenchmen who tried to establish Fort Caroline, the Spanish at Fort Augustine, the English who disappeared from Roanoke Island, the settlement of Jamestown, and establishment of Plymouth Colony, portray the first efforts in settling a future nation. The subject and its treatment are appropriate for older children as well as younger, able readers. C

MEN ON IRON HORSES. By Edith McCall, Illustrated by Carol Rogers. Children's Press, 1960. \$2.50. (8-14)

Another in the *Frontiers of America* series, this collection of true stories of the men who made possible mass transportation and in so doing shrank the boundaries of our nation, is full of adventure. Chapter headings reveal the flavor and substance of the early pioneers of transportation,

"Peter Cooper's Horse and A Half," "William Ogden's Iron Pioneer," "Leland Stan-



ford Hits the Golden Spike" are but a few of the intriguing episodes included. C

SCIENCE

COUNT DOWN. By C. B. Colby. Illustrated with photographs. Coward-McCann, 1960. \$2.25. (10-14)

Count Down tells more about the bases from which missiles fly than about the missiles. Through narrative and photographs, the reader learns about gantry towers, underground "silos," periscoped control shelters, mobile launching pads, and special devices for handling the giant rockets and missiles. This complex subject is simplified for young readers through intensive use of charts and photographs. C

THE STORY OF THE ATOM. By Mae and Ira Freeman. Illustrated by René Martin. Random House, 1960. \$1.95. (8-12)

This difficult subject is well treated for young readers in easy-to-understand terms. The parts of an atom, how the scientist changes atoms to make them more useful are explained. Emphasis is placed upon the

constructive uses of the atom to help men. Format, type, simplicity of narrative, and illustrations combine to make this a book for older children with reading problems as well as for younger readers. C

THE TALE OF A POND. By Henry B. Kane. Illustrated by the author. Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1960. \$3.00. (10-14)

"A pond is many things—it is a home for a great variety of water creatures, a sanctuary for migrating birds, and a source of



life-giving water to the animals and plants of meadow and swamp." Through the eyes of a boy the full year's cycle in the life of a pond is depicted. This is an artistic example of quality bookmaking which makes it a proud addition to a cherished library. C

A TRIP ON A JET. By Carla Greene. Illustrated by photographs. Lantern Press, 1960. \$2.50. (8-12)

Through the eyes of two children taking a cross-country jet flight from Los Angeles to New York, the reader is introduced to jet travel through the eyes of the passengers. Excellent format, clear photographs, makes this a book for older, reluctant readers as well as for younger, able readers. C



BUILDING SPELLING POWER

by JEAN and PAUL HANNA is a remarkably effective series for Grades 2-8. It provides a solid foundation in spelling skills which, once mastered, enable pupils to spell correctly and with confidence.

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concentrates on teaching spelling principles which pupils can apply not only to the basic spelling list but to the words they may want and need to use in writing activities. The word list in each textbook is set up in groupings of similar phonetic characteristics. In this way the child gains familiarity first with the most regular spellings of speech sounds and later, the less regular spellings.

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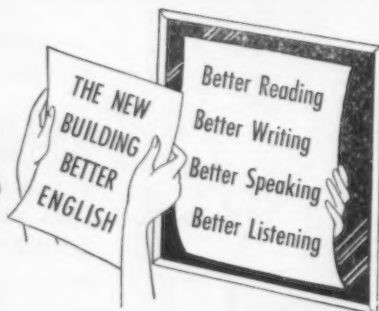
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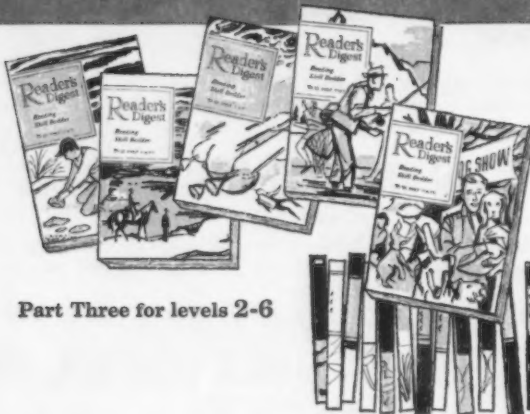
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